

FRAGILE

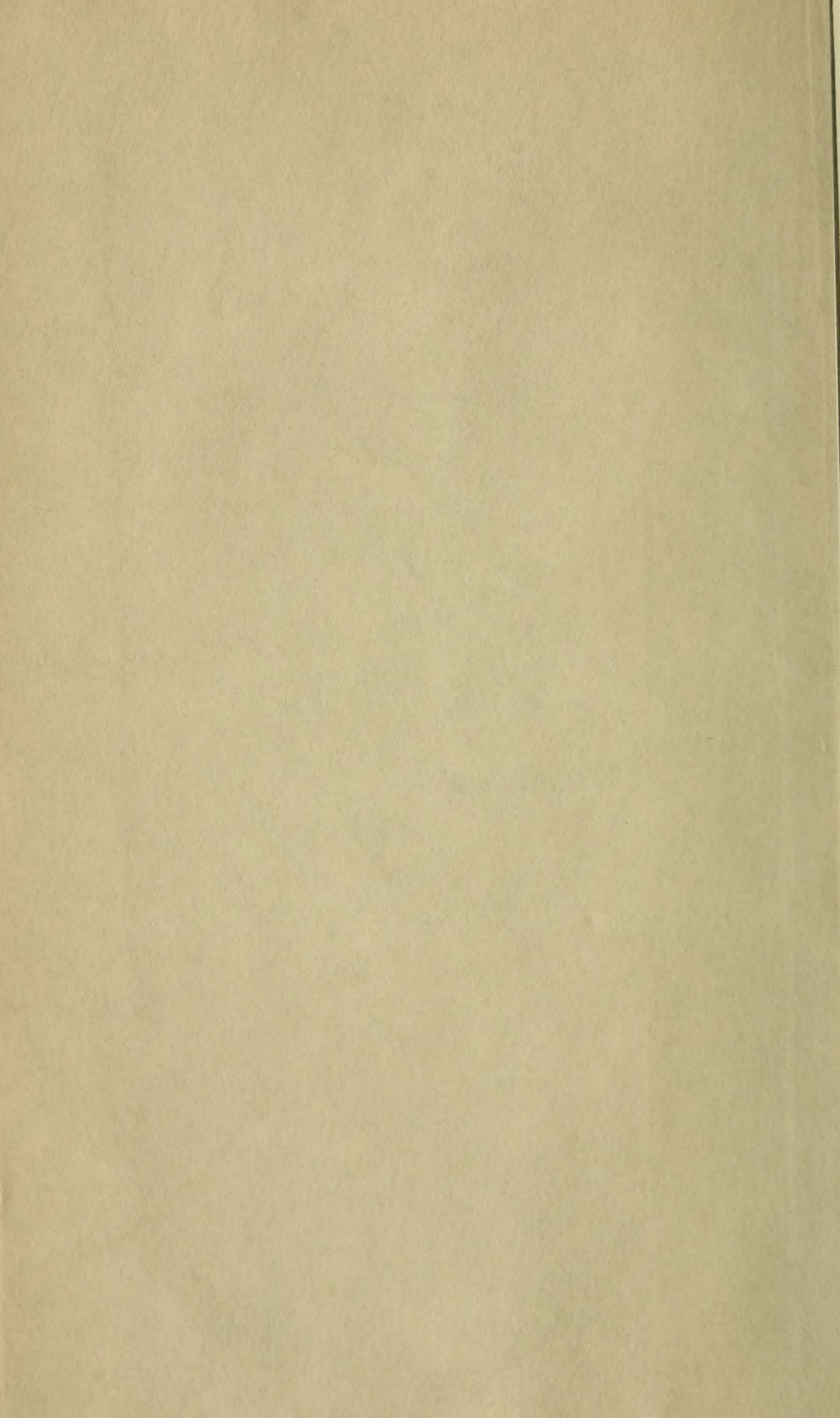
Do Not
Photocopy

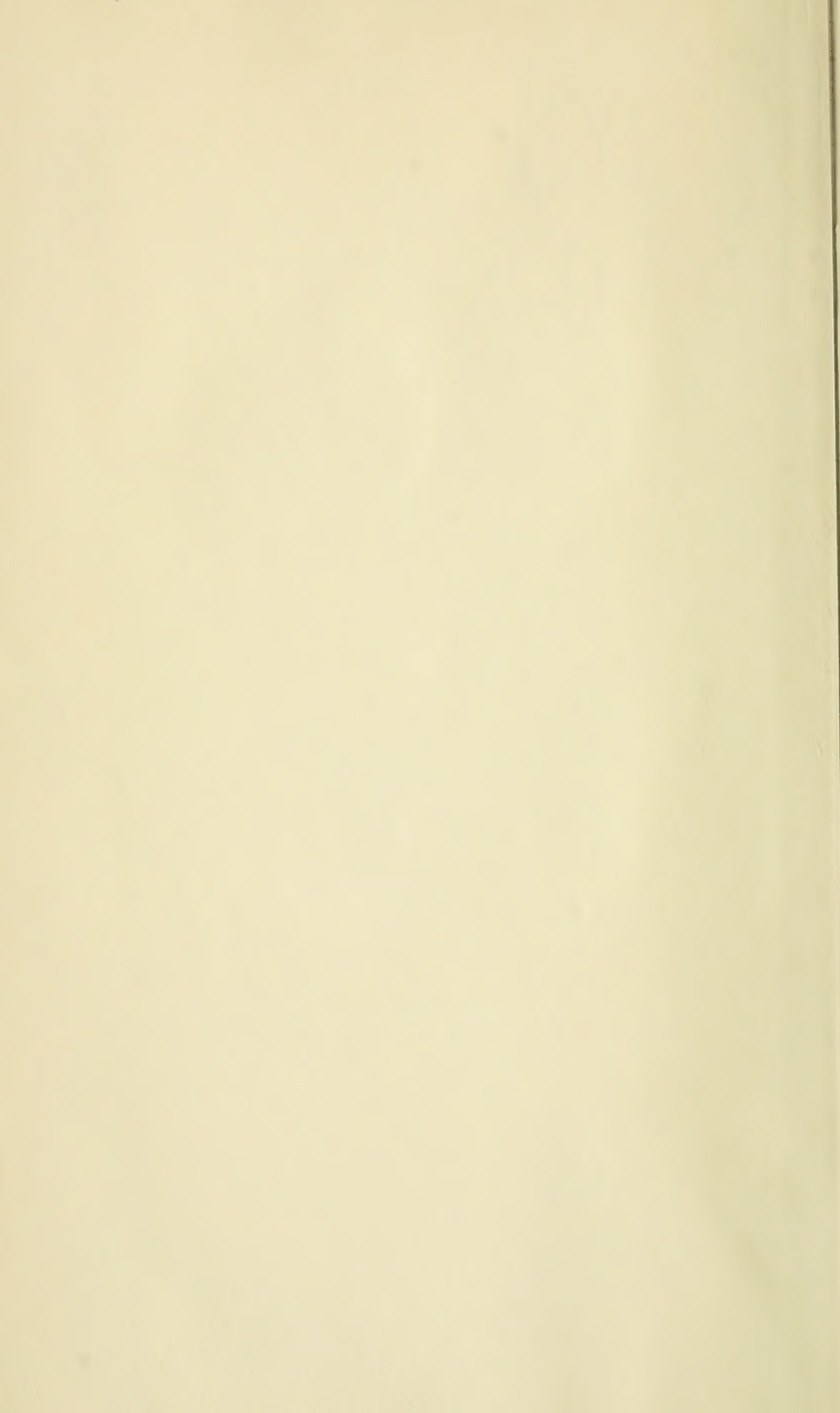


No. 9331.07kk

v. 2







9331.0744

REPORT - 3

OF THE

BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR,

EMBRACING THE

1870-71

ACCOUNT OF ITS OPERATIONS AND INQUIRIES FROM MARCH 1,
1870, TO MARCH 1, 1871.

BOSTON:

WRIGHT & POTTER, STATE PRINTERS, No. 79 MILK STREET,
(CORNER OF FEDERAL STREET.)

1871.

5069

Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

OFFICE OF BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR, }
STATE HOUSE, BOSTON, March 1, 1871. }

To the Honorable the Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts:

The undersigned, in accordance with the provisions of the Resolve by which this Bureau was created (chap. 102, 1869), present, with other pertinent matter, the subjoined account of their operations and inquiries since March 1, 1870; their report for 1869-70 (Senate Doc. No. 120, 1870), containing an account of their doings between August, 1869, and March, 1870. Of this document there were printed, by order of the legislature, 6,000 extra copies, making, with the ordinary number allowed by law, an aggregate of 6,800, of which very few remain. Widely distributed through the Commonwealth, they were also sent to all parts of the country, to England, and to the Continent, in answer to applications therefor. Of our first Report, a much condensed summary of labor in England and legislation thereon, up to the emigration and settlement of America, supplied by English authorities, occupied about 48 pages. Of the remaining 375, all but 8 are occupied wholly by home matter, excluding all foreign matter and statistics. Four of these eight relate to the sanitary influence of factory life abroad, and four to the homes and home-life of French operatives; leaving 367 devoted to labor matters in Massachusetts.

The present Report will embrace information on new and interesting subjects, among them being an account of the origin of combination, and its development into the Gilds of ancient times, with their several varieties (necessarily derived from foreign sources), and the Trades-Unions of modern days, the successors* of these Gilds, and therefore springing from a very

* In the use of this word *successors*, however, it must be understood, that a member of an ancient Gild was an individual capitalist and workman, combined in one—"a freeman

remote antiquity ; the origin and object of strikes, and a minute account of several of those which occurred in Massachusetts in 1870, with suggestions that point to a melioration of their evil effects, to a diminution in their occurrence, and ultimately to their entire extinction through natural and peaceful processes. Following these, there is given information upon agricultural, domestic, commercial, manufacturing, mechanical and other industrial subjects, derived from replies received in answer to blank circulars sent to employers and employed, and from oral testimony given by each of those parties, covering the subject-matter of wages, earnings and cost of living, methods of work, working time, hours of labor, educational condition, women's work and wages, factory life, child-labor, with tables and their explanation, comments thereon and conclusions therefrom.

The following were special subjects of investigation, by correspondence, and what information was obtained will be found in after pages of this Report.

1. Savings Banks,—with reference to the classification of depositors therein, least and greatest deposits, average length of time that deposits remain, their investments and loans, &c., &c.

2. Investigation into the question of what would be the profit, or otherwise, accruing in some given year, to each operative in a factory, were the establishment a co-operative one, and not a stock company of outside shareholders.

3. Inquiry by correspondence with parties (not operatives) resident in manufacturing towns, upon the influence of factory life,—moral, social, domestic, and sanitary,—and upon the employment of children in factories.

4. Inquiries of employers who have voluntarily reduced hours of labor, upon the results of such reduction, productive and pecuniary, and its influence upon employes.

5. Inquiries into present actual wages abroad.

6. Examination of the homes of the poor in Boston.

The information obtained, will be found in subsequent pages. To these are added considerations upon the sub-

of the Gild"—(*free* to all its privileges), and that the Trades-Unionist is a workman only, and not a capitalist. So that while, chronologically, Trades-Unions are true successors and imitators of the Gilds, in many of their rules and functions, these functions are modified by the status of members, and the advance of the times. For further illustration hereof, see pages on "Gilds," hereinafter.

jects of poverty, intemperance, cheap labor, wages, hours of labor, and co-operation, concluding with recommendations in certain matters, as worthy of legislative consideration.

In addition to the above, we have had correspondence with officials in other States, upon the objects, duties, workings and results of this office, with a view to the establishment of similar bureaus in their own States.

Our last Report excited interest outside of Massachusetts, and many extracts have been made therefrom in various newspapers and periodicals.

The amount authorized to be expended for the year 1870 (other than salaries), for office expenses, viz.: travel of chief and deputy, printing, postage and expressage, witness fees, stationery, assistants and their travel, &c., was to the amount of \$5,000; all of which was used.

Up to February 24, the chief and deputy were engaged in the preparation of their first Report, due under the Resolve, on or before March 1, in each year. This, by authority of the legislature, was presented in print, so that although the manuscript was ready at the time indicated, the document itself did not reach the legislature in the form authorized till early in April.

The late date at which means were authorized to carry on its work, retarded the operations of the Bureau during the early months of its official year, as it was necessary that it should have the aid of assistants in gathering up statistics and other information personally, thus creating a change in its method of operation from that of the preceding year (1869). To economize time, therefore, blanks were prepared of such form as would render them available under whatever method might be adopted. To aid us in this, we corresponded with the Department of the Interior at Washington, and with expert staticians who had expressed a deep interest in our work. These blanks were, as directly as possible, confined to the subjects of wages and earnings of working people, men, women, and children, as these would be materially indicative of their actual condition. They were made in as uniform a pattern as the several varieties of labor in which these parties were employed, would permit. They are ten in number, and their forms, methods, and questions are given hereinafter, ac-

companied with replies received and information derived therefrom.

ASSISTANTS.

On the first of July, immediately following the appropriation therefor of June 23, two assistants were appointed, Messrs. N. W. Stoddard, and R. D. Pratt, to whom were given the following instructions, directing them to commence their operations in the county of Berkshire, and to take other remote points in the State, before entering upon those more near.

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR, }
STATE HOUSE, July 12, 1870. }

In addition to the information obtained upon the special blank forms given you, in the matters of wages and earnings, information is to be sought upon the several matters herein below named, so far as practicable.

1. Ascertain if any instances are known in any place visited, of working people in any department of labor, who have acquired a *competence* by their trade, meaning by *competence* such an amount of property as would yield an annual interest equal to a year's wages, at such trade. Ascertain, also, if any cases are known of working people who, out of the savings of their wages simply, without any other aid whatever, have secured a home.

2. Ascertain, also, whether as a general rule, working people with an average family, say of four persons, are free from debt, having met annual expenses by annual earnings.

3. Ascertain, also, as far as may be done, what proportion (by estimate) of working people are out of employment during the year, and in what seasons of the year. Give the greatest number of unemployed persons; and what is the average number of days that workmen are actually employed in a year; that is, *the actual number of wage-earning days*.

4. Ascertain whether there be a *store*, connected or not, with any given establishment (wherein working people are employed), upon which store orders are given by the employer, in payment, part or whole, for work done.

5. Ascertain whether there have been any strikes among the working people in the place; and if any, the dates, causes and results, and all particulars of any interest.

6. Ascertain by personal examination, at establishments visited,

the methods of heating, lighting, ventilating, protection against accidents from machinery, fire or lightning, or any other cause; and if accidents have occurred within a year, ascertain the particulars thereof, and what has been done to prevent repetition.

7. Ascertain, if it can be done, the average length of operative life; what diseases are incident thereto; the proportion of deaths and the leading causes of mortality; and how often a set of operatives is wholly changed.

8. Examine into the condition of the dwellings of the working people—their localities and surroundings—and the arrangements, exterior and interior, and whether, if mill operatives, these dwellings are provided by the company or individual owner; the number of persons in each house, &c., &c.; supply of water, drainage, ventilation, liability or non-liability to disease, regulations, character of food, &c., &c.

9. Inquire about the habits of the working people in temperance, recreations, observance of the Sabbath, attendance of children at Sunday Schools, habits of dress on working and other days, and their general reputation in the community in which they live.

10. Inquire whether there have been, or are any co-operative associations, productive or distributive, in the locality visited—their methods of management, success or non-success, and causes of either. Give special inquiry into the matters of trades-unions,—their objects, methods, results, &c., &c. Inquire also into the matter of combinations, if any in any form, against employers, and generally into all matters pertinent to the relations between capital and labor. Make careful and *early* record of results of all such inquiries.

11. Ascertain *specially*, whether any children *under* ten years of age are employed in any manufacturing work, what methods are used to learn the ages of children employed, and whether children between ten and fifteen, in such manufacturing work, receive their legal schooling, and what method is pursued to secure it. Note the appearance of any children you may see in factories, as to probable age, development and health.

12. Examine carefully, the *classification* of employments (of which you have a copy), and write at the head of the appropriate blank (3d line from top) the number of the class, division and subdivision. In some cases, the *printed* number may require change. Leave the space after the word No., *vacant*. If it take too much time, or objection be made to giving the full earnings from January to July, 1870, get them, if possible, for *some one month*, between

those dates. But be particular to get *the total amount of wages paid*, as at bottom of blank.

13. Ascertain, also, from resident traders, an estimated proportion of their working people customers who are behindhand in settlement of accounts. Ascertain, also, what interval of time usually elapses between making up of pay-rolls and actual paying off of work people employed.

14. Ascertain the general educational facilities of the community wherein the branch of industry is carried on, in the matters of day schools and evening schools, and the time given to each, and general attendance; whether, or not, there are lectures, libraries, reading-rooms, &c., &c., and the general attendance thereat. Ascertain whether any technical education is provided, or any instruction for employes in the theory of their work over and above what they secure by practice.

15. In all cases of inquiry by interview with any parties, a quiet, gentlemanly and courteous unobtrusiveness must always govern. Wherever objection or refusal is made, to giving the information desired, all pressure must be avoided, and you will merely record the fact of refusal.

In addition to the work confided to these assistants, and because we knew that in so limited a portion of the year as remained the amount of information they could gather would itself be limited, we distributed blanks relating to all known occupations throughout the State. What has been gathered from these sources is given hereinafter.

In September, for the purpose of obtaining in as exact shape as possible reliable information concerning the work, wages, earnings and manner of life of work-women, we employed a lady, Miss Adeline Bryant of Boston, to investigate these subjects, instructing her to make her present inquiries wholly within the limits of the city. The information under those heads contained in this Report has been derived by her in personal visits and interviews. It is wholly authentic, covering points of interest that have, we believe, never before appeared in an official document.

In answer to our questions upon the fishing business, we have received valuable information from professional men resident in fishing towns and from fishermen themselves, all of which will be given under the general heading of Commercial Statistics. The information is very minute, and relates specially

to the method of distribution of the earnings by lays or shares. It comes principally from the Cape district, and is mainly confined to the cod and mackerel fishery, with some statements on whaling in addition to that in our former Report.

Early in August we commenced the examination of witnesses on the subject of some of the strikes in Massachusetts during the year 1870, interrogating both employers and employed, as well as city and town authorities, and of most of these cases taking verbatim reports. Official, connected narratives of these several strikes, founded on deliberate statements made by actual participators therein, cannot but prove of historic value. We have therefore given much space to this subject, believing it to be of incalculable importance that accurate facts should be substituted for sensational rumors, even though minuteness of detail be necessary to secure such accuracy, and further believing that these movements unfavorably affect the permanent prosperity of the Commonwealth.

The loss in production to the State must be very large. The loss, for instance, incurred by the strike at Fall River (1870), which lasted about nine weeks, amounted to more than a million and a quarter of dollars, the loss to the operatives being about \$375,000, the whole being an aggregate of upwards of a million and a half. These figures are further to be increased by the direct cost to the city and State of extra city police, State constabulary and State militia. But it is not pecuniary loss alone that affects the good of the Commonwealth and the true welfare of its people. That may be tolerated. Ill-feelings are gendered and quickened into class hatred, and the two parties, with lavish abuse of word and violence of deed, are sundered farther and farther apart, and become distinctly separate castes with no common feeling but that of mutual hostility, and there succeeds a condition of labor such as has been declared to be indigenous only under despotic governments, but which is attaining (has it not already attained?) an undesirable and unwelcome naturalization in our own land. Indeed, it is not unworthy of note that the old cry *against* the pauper labor of Europe has, of late years, grown less resonant, and has even measurably given way to a more or less earnest demand *for* it. And, as such labor, sometimes specially im-

ported, has flowed in upon us and got a footing, it has either driven the former laborers into less depressed departments of labor, or in those departments of labor (such as that of the textile fabrics) that are within the capability of the new comers, its tendency is to reduce the old laborers down to an undesirable proximity to their brethren in England and on the Continent.

As it has generally been believed that strikes are the offspring of trades-unions, inquiry into these movements obviously suggested inquiry into the origin, history and function of their parents. This inquiry we then made, and in the course of the investigation it soon became manifest that they were not causes of evil and of evil only, but that good had come of them. They might have been, and in some instances probably have been, originators of strikes, yet, although a strike recognizes the idea of union, since individuality is too weak to strike, such union is not necessarily a trades-union, distinctively so called. Now, they have been generators of good, often of great good, and of real moral beneficence to their members. And in nothing have they been more beneficent than in serving as the means of that new feature now exciting great attention abroad, conciliation by arbitration, thus themselves supplying the means of cure for the very evil which they are blamed for originating.

Now, both arbitration and conciliation must necessarily be preceded by a recognition of the right of workmen to combine. This right always has been so recognized where these two elements have performed their office. And the recognition of this right carries with it a recognition of the combination itself, under whatever name it may be known. Any effort to suppress the principle of combination among thoughtful men, workmen or any other class of men, will be wholly futile. Men of any advance above savagery, nay, even these, know how to combine: they have combined and they will continue to combine, and combination must be accepted and dealt with as a fixed fact. That done, employers may find close at hand a medium of communication through which they may, if they will, reach their workmen. It may not be an agreeable thing to some employers to recognize unions of any sort, but history is full of just such accepted disagreeablenesses.

Recognition of mutual rights by any two parties at issue upon any point whatever will insure a careful, just and impartial

consideration of the matter in debate, and open the way to its settlement, and we are very glad to record the fact that not all employers are of opinion that workingmen "have no rights which" employers "are bound to respect."*

The importance of this recognition has been long felt in England. Her very laws, unlike the laws of her older days, now recognize combination as a right of her workmen. The full parliamentary reports (in two volumes folio), the excellent and impartial work of Comte de Paris, the space given to it in Thornton's work on labor, and in the very large number of other treatises published in England on the same matter, all testify to this fact and to the great importance of the subject.

We have felt it to be a prime and urgent duty to ascertain, with at least reasonable degree of accuracy, the condition of labor and the status of laborers in Massachusetts, to investigate, and, as far as possible, to become intimate with causes of discontent, to clear away any clouds that hide or distort realities, and ignoring sensationalism, to represent verities as they actually exist. Such investigation must be preliminary to legislation, in order to make it intelligent, operative and permanent. As legislation in this direction must of necessity be somewhat experimental, it is very obvious that in order to render it as little so as possible, minute research and most patient examination are necessary, and for a long time, to secure a thoroughly wise and complete statement of the great question. Methods and forms of legislation will always be influenced by the progress of events, the advance of society, and the demands of the ages. There have been times when the application of law was not called for in the direction of education, charity, health, transportation of passengers and freight, and very many other important matters. But now the call is justified and legislative

* Of this the following letter is an indication:—

"I return you the blank sent me, with the statistics of labor of my manufactory. In so doing, permit me to say I know of nothing better calculated to create harmony between the employer and employed, than a general diffusion of correct statements relating to this subject. When the employer shall thoroughly understand that he cannot prosper for any great length of time, unless his employés are also prospering, and when the employer becomes convinced that it is for his interest to be liberal with his employés, then something will have been done to bring about that unity of feeling and action which is necessary to secure to the laboring class the highest degree of success.

"That the State may be able to do something to bridge over the gap which seems to be widening between the two parties, is my earnest desire.

"Yours respectfully."

response made to them all, and under the magic touch of law there have arisen boards of education, boards of charity, boards of health, and commissioners on railways. And now comes up the cry from thousands of tongues, too loud to be unheard or unheeded, for legislative action in questions of labor, and it would be true wisdom, as well as sound policy, to grapple with the subject while it is in the weakness of infancy, rather than to leave it to grow to the gigantic proportions it has reached in England, where poverty and pauperism task and puzzle the brain of her statesmen and agonize the hearts of her philanthropists.)

I. COMBINATION.

It may safely be said that the principle of combination to accomplish results unattainable by individual effort is as old as society itself. In fact, society is itself combination, and the two are, therefore, of cotemporary origin. The least intelligent thought suggests the idea, that where individual effort is powerless, aggregated effort may be successful. Examples are abundant everywhere; for, from the weaver-bird, the bee and the beaver, up through the compounded strength of industrial corporations, to the allied forces of combined nations, there are unions illustrating in multivariied forms, for multivariied purposes, the massing of power to achieve success unattainable by individual effort. Not inventions of modern times, these massings are scattered all along the line of history, sometimes of the weak against the strong, but far more frequently and successfully of the strong against the weak. In progress of time, combination among the weak suggested revolt and resistance against the strong (these words in modern times finding their synonym in the word "strike"), as was the revolt of the Hebrew slaves against the Egyptian taskmasters, with their subsequent exodus; the revolt of the Plebeians at Rome against the Patricians, and their subsequent secession from the city; the revolt of Protestantism against Popery, with the subsequent setting up of an independent church; the revolt of the American colonies against England, and their subsequent setting up of an independent government of coöperative States. All these may be regarded as successful strikes and all justified by the judgment of history.

An interesting and not generally known instance of a resistant strike successfully carried out, is found in Archibald Young's "Historical Sketch of the French Bar" (Edinburgh, 1869). It occurred among a no less illustrious body than the French lawyers themselves at Paris. In the year 1291, Philip the Fair, King of France, confirmed the enactments of Philip the Bold (1243-85), concerning the fees of advocates at the French courts of law, prohibiting their receiving anything beyond certain specified amounts. But these limitations appear to have fallen into disregard and disuse, since it was recommended (1453) that "advocates be moderate in their fees"; and a usage which prevails in England at the present time, namely, the signature of counsel under the fee marked upon their brief, was the subject-matter of an ordinance in the time of Henry III. (1551-89). Out of this grew this memorable transaction. The king ordered the members of the bar to write, each with his own hand, beneath his own signature, the amount of fees he had received in any case. The lawyers refused resolutely to obey the injunction, and in fact resented it as an insult, and to show their determined hostility, proceeded in a body to lay down their functions, declaring that they voluntarily abandoned their profession as advocates, rather than to obey a law injurious to their honor and repugnant to their rights. No fewer than four hundred and seven (407) advocates in all, thus solemnly and determinedly combined and protested against the royal ordinance. When the parliament assembled there were no advocates to plead, and justice was at a stand-still. The king yielded, the bar prevailed, and the ordinance was recalled. A very strong instance is this of the internal discipline of the French bar, and of loyalty to their order. The movement was a well-organized and effective strike, the result of meetings held and movements concerted, and combination to secure success. The determining of the amount of fees in given cases had been by royal ordinance, and to secure compliance with such ordinance the advocate employed must, beneath his own signature to his own brief, write the amount of such fee received. Here, then, the laborer did not fix the price of his own labor; the royal decree did that, and he had nothing to say. Against this he revolted, asserting the principle that the laborer had the right to fix the price of his labor, the seller of the article he has for sale.

That principle they successfully maintained ; other laborers have not always so prevailed.

So then resistance against the push of power, governmental, corporate, capitalized or moneyed, is no historical novelty. It is an acknowledged characteristic of mankind, unknown in other animals, and by no means the least desirable, praiseworthy and thankworthy, that when once the aspiration after betterness has been awakened, men strive to become better, and to make that better better still. This aspiration is God-given, never to be smothered till the eternal instincts of human nature are blotted out. It is vastly better for the world and for all mankind that men should become better, better in every way, morally, physically, mentally, socially ; and vastly, unspeakably worse, as all history and experience testify, that they should be kept worse, or become worse, for then the world's advance would be stopped, and the millennium would be only a prophecy, men remaining, what too many have desired and still desire to keep them, " the servants of servants unto their brethren," with the curse upon Canaan eternally clinging to them.

We now proceed to speak of some of the many forms which the natural impulse towards combination has generated, confining our selection mainly, however, to the records of English industrial history, as most ready at hand, reliable and abundant in examples, our principal authority being Toulmin Smith, on " English Gilds." (London, 1870.)

II. COMBINATION BY GILDS.

Earliest among English combinational efforts were the Guilds, or Gilds, of which there were the religious or social gilds, the merchant or frith gilds, and the craft gilds. The word gild, according to the most reliable authorities, signifies a *feast*, as its primary meaning,—and secondarily, the *company* gathered for such *feast*, the usual derivation from the German *geld* (payment of assessment fee) not being well sustained. It seems to have been early applied to the festivals of German tribes in Scandinavia on political, religious and family occasions. The *family* appears as the archetype of a gild, that being the primitive form of association. But needs arose, as society progressed, which the family could not meet, and artificial associations then naturally sprang up. The earliest

seem to have been unions for sacrificial purposes, from which "religious gilds" were developed, for association in prayer and charity, for the veneration of religious mysteries, and in honor of saints, each gild assuming a name having a sacred association, as the "Gild of the Trinity," the "Gild of the Holy Cross," the "Gild of Corpus Christi" (Body of Christ), the "Gild of St. John," of "St. Mary," etc., etc. To their charities belonged the duty of rendering assistance to members and others in old age, sickness, poverty, losses by any calamity, and lastly, burial of the dead. To these they added the aiding of poor scholars, the maintenance of schools and the payment of schoolmasters, though no gild pursued all these objects together, each one selecting and pursuing some specialty, or specialties, from among these. Many of the gilds enrolled persons of both sexes, and all shared equally and impartially in the duties and benefits of the fraternity to which they belonged. In some of the well-managed of these societies were to be found persons of all ranks, from royalty to the "middling and common folk," the "Gild of Trinity," at Coventry, having Kings Henry IV. and VI.—that of "St. Barbara," in London, having King Henry VIII. and Cardinal Wolsey, and that of "St. Christopher's," at York, having the Earl and Countess of Northumberland and their son, as members.

The Reformation shook the whole system of gilds, especially of the religious, to their foundation, and they were abolished in all Protestant countries; in England to the benefit of the king's privy purse, but on the Continent to the benefit of the poor, the poor-houses, the hospitals and the schools. Yet it is more than probable that many of them kept up a sort of organization, and when the zeal against Catholicism had abated, continued their meetings for purposes of charity and conviviality. The merchant, or frith gilds, existed in England as remotely as Anglo-Saxon times. They comprised all persons *fully* citizens, that is, those possessing land within the municipal limits, old free-landed proprietors. Their object was the protection of liberty, property and trade, against the violence of nobles, the aggressions of the bishops, or the assault of robbers; and as the body of full citizens, members of the several frith gilds united into one gild, controlled town affairs, what was

ld law became town law, and so governed all citizens, gild and non-gild. The laws made by them were enforced without scruple. A noted instance of this occurred in 1130, at Schleswig, in Denmark. The son of its king, Nicholas, had killed Duke Canute, alderman of the city and protector of its gild. The king was counselled not to enter the city for fear that the vengeance of the gild should make him atone for his son's crime. But despising the warning, and disdaining all fear of those whom he called "*a gang of tanners and shoemakers*," he passed through the gates. Hardly had he entered the town, when the gates were closed, the gild bell rang, and the citizens (all being gildmen) seized him, and killed him and all his attendants.

But this class of gilds gradually acquiring an aristocratic family character, and limiting the number of members, new gilds arose, the social position of whose members was nearly that of their predecessors, and who strove for and obtained an equal share in the government of the town.

As almost all gild-brothers at first carried on some trade, the organization devoted its purposes to the furthering of common trade interests and the regulation of industry. Though consisting chiefly of merchants,* *craftsmen* were not excluded provided they were full citizens (landholders), the strict separation between merchant and crafts being a growth by degrees. The accumulation of wealth and increase of population, calling for greater subdivision of labor, and the full citizen having become rich, carrying on trade in a large way, handicrafts were left to the poor and the unfree, and these were excluded, as an ordinance indicates that no one "with dirty hands," or with "blue nails," or who "hawked his wares in the streets," should become a gild member, until he had given up his trade "for a year and a day." Such craftsmen were not only excluded from the gilds, but were governed and even oppressed by them.

Accumulation of wealth produced its normal influence. Riches acquired by wholesale trade and invested in lands and otherwise, enabled members to live without work, and such life

* The word *merchant* has had a varying meaning. When the London tailors imported cloth, they were merchants (as now we have *merchant tailors*); the Hamburg brewers and bakers were the principal corn merchants, and the butchers were merchants when they dealt in hides and wool.

became the mark of rank and of honor, the laws of the land making a distinction between the patrician and the man "*without hearth and honor, who lives by his labor,*" and the former could, with impunity, "*box the ears of the latter, for not showing a proper respect.*" The spirit of oppression and the fact of exclusion generated dislike, and even hatred, so that eventually the leading free hand-craftsmen formed guilds of their own to stop the deterioration of their condition and encroachment on their rights and interests, using the constitutions and laws of the old guilds as models for their own, with such changes as their peculiar wants demanded. Once organized, they provided for maintaining the customs of their several crafts, framed ordinances for their regulation, and for enforcement of rules, and used earnest effort that all of any trade should be members of its guild. This they deemed necessary to secure their independence, to make their trade rules efficient and to protect the public against bad work. But though, at first formation, a guild included all men of the trade, there must afterwards have been some who would not join, and who yet carried on their trade. Nor could this be prevented, unless a guild had been recognized by the "lord of the town," or by the whole body of citizens. If this recognition were secured, full power was secured. The effort after such power was a continued struggle, culminating during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and ending in a victory by the guilds in the reign of Henry VI. As an example of these struggles we may refer to that of the weavers' guild with the city of London to maintain a privilege granted by Henry I., "*that nobody should introduce himself into their mystery (trade), in the city or in Southwark, except by becoming a member of their guild.*"

It is matter worthy of note that in all contests for such power, the "weavers' guild took the lead," and as, before centralization of manufactures had necessitated subdivision of operatives, weavers at home generally prepared their own yarn, it is fairly an inference that weavers and spinners of those early days may be taken as convertible terms, and if so we have another historic repetition, for in our days "spinners" seem to take the lead. It is further historically true that in England, all the craft guilds always had the power to choose their own wardens, officers possessing great power, such as

the right to "*examine all manufactures and to search for all unlawful tools and products.*" Edward III. was himself a member of the gild known as the "linen armorers," and in his reign an Act required "*that all artificers should choose their own mystery, and use no other,*" and everywhere the fundamental principle of the trade policy prevailed, the protection, namely, "under the government, to live freely and independently, on an industry based on small capital and labor."

Gilds had the power, also, *to enforce payment of fees and assessments* by the very means used by some modern trade-unions, of which these gilds were the forerunners, *by taking away the tools of debtors therefor.* Moreover, they could even legally sell these very tools to get these dues, which modern unions cannot do, and this right under the law continued from the reign of Edward II. (1327-77) down to the seventeenth century, and may be clearly traced back to the earliest laws and usages of the old German tribes. This process, known by the modern slang word, *rattening*, and under light of later days rightly denounced, hath, at any rate, a pungent "smack of age, and smart relish of the saltiness of time,"—though there can be but small doubt that the sternest conservative would prefer, in such case, to "let the dead past bury its dead."

We desire it to be remembered that we are herein giving a historic narrative derived from the most reliable sources, and that we are not acting as advocates of anything which an improved and enlightened public sentiment declares to be hurtful to the general good. But we feel persuaded that all parties concerned or interested will be glad to have placed before them, gathered with no ordinary pains, important historical parallels not generally known, and pertaining to the absorbing subjects of labor and laborers' unions. We therefore pursue these details of traditionary craft customs.

The rules for the government of the gilds embraced two controlling elements, one having reference to the "securing of good quality of work," and the other to the attainment of such life as would secure the "temporal and eternal welfare of members," protection against loss of custom, and protection against loss of honor and good name being herein involved. It was therefore essential to the full operation of these rules, that all those who carried on *the same trade should belong to the*

same gild, but no one was admitted to any trade whatever *whose conduct and reputation were not stainless*, or who had not proved himself to be a good workman, made so by a previous apprenticeship. Of apprentices, the number was restricted. This preliminary service lasted in England seven years, in France from three to six, and in Germany from two to four years, the apprentice being duly and solemnly bound to his master and becoming a member of his family, he not only guiding his work, but guarding his morals. On entering a gild a craftman's tools were tested, and his own skill, even to the most minute details of his method of working. Specially was it prohibited, and in strongest terms, "*to mix inferior materials with better to the injury of buyers, or to sell old articles patched up for new.*"* Further to secure the good quality of their work, the gild statutes ordained that no one "shall work longer than from the beginning of the day to curfew," † "nor at night by candle-light." The best authorities attribute this rule to a regard to the general well-being of the members, that "leisure might be had for fulfilling political and domestic duties, and to prevent their being forced to overwork by the competition of a few zealous for rapid gain, and from being deprived of every enjoyment of life, though the methods of work were then less monotonous than now, and therefore less wearing upon the bodily and mental power of the workman. Is less leisure required now, in the nineteenth century, than in those remote days, for the same objects?

Gilds, like modern trades-unions, frequently formed gild-unions embracing whole countries. The tailors in Silesia had a union extending through twenty-five towns, while the building lodges in Germany, in 1452, under guidance of Dolzinger, chief master at the building of Strasburg cathedral, effected a confederacy renowned throughout Europe, with sub lodges in the small towns, and central lodges with head-quarters at Strasburg, Cologne, Vienna and Zurich, the subordinate lodges send-

* Shoddy and Mungo were not then known.

† Sunrise to curfew (excepting in winter) would indicate (with one hour out for dinner) an average of thirteen hours and forty-four minutes of work in summer months, and eight hours thirty minutes in winter months. It is also to be added, that on Saturday and the eve of all double feast days, no work was done after noon-bell; and that there were numerous holidays, all tending to reduce the average daily hours of work.

ing each two deputies * to the meetings of the central society, and submitting to its decision all matters which could not be settled at home, the Vienna lodge administering justice throughout its district as late as 1789.

But the good record of the guilds seems to fall away after the middle of the fourteenth century and their degeneracy to have then begun, the craft-gild thence gradually changing from a society for the protection of trade, into an opportunity for the investment of money. Their money power drew hordes of the wandering villeins of the period into the towns, specially those where the manufacture of cloths prevailed. Family influence came in, the entrance fees were enlarged, and hereditary membership became the substitute of former methods of admittance, because of inability to comply with the excessive payment required. Trades became the entails of families, and the "narrow spirit of capital, petty rivalries and odious egotisms took the place of the great idea of association and solidarity under which the original craft-gilds grew up and flourished." The crowding of the rural laborers into the towns to take up trades, materially diminished the number of apprentices and of workmen who, with some capital, entered into a trade in order to become masters therein, and there began to appear a distinct and real working class, with separate views and interests of their own. Statutes, also, then first appeared to regulate the relations of masters and *workmen*, to settle their disputes, and to provide that each party should fulfil its obligation to the other, the word *workmen* not having appeared in statute prior to that century.

The plague of 1348 intensified the struggles between masters and workmen, and disturbed all the relations of social life. The scarcity of workmen urged them to demand higher wage, while the scarcity of all the necessities of life, growing out of this scarcity of workmen, and the general alarm, caused a rise of prices and general distress among all classes, rich and poor. All social bonds were loosened, whole villages were desolated, flocks and herds perished for lack of care, the abundant crops

* An instance is recorded by Moke (Vol. II. p. 99), in 1280, wherein servants who worked under a craftsman master, acted as delegates and received pay in definite proportion with their master, while at Bruges (p. 109) *they even received a share in their master's profits!*

of the year withered on the ground for lack of reapers, countless houses fell to ruin and there were no materials for repairs, except at prices impossible but to the very rich, and hardly available by them even if bought, because of the scarcity of workmen. And then came in legislation on the subject of wages, with its concomitant and derivative evils,—a legislation which attempted to limit both what the employer should give and what the workman should receive. And yet, notwithstanding the economical unwisdom which such enactments exhibited, there was this of good, that they struck at the usurers who strove for exorbitant interest, the merchants and tradesmen who demanded excessive profit on their goods, and the clergy who claimed larger fees for prayers over the dead and masses for souls of the departed.

About this time (1360), as nearly as can be well defined, came into practice the method of *strikes* so much in use in later years.

The building trades seem to have been, more frequently than others, engaged in these movements, because the owners of buildings, then as now, paid the master-builders, and the latter hired and paid the workmen what they pleased, reserving what they could for their own profit. Differences often occurred under this system, and alleged grievances easily generated combinations of journeymen for mutual support and protection.

Such bandings together were considered so injurious to the general good, that special laws were enacted against them in the reign of Edward III. (1361) and of Henry II. (1424). Legislation, however, did not stop them. It never can. Fraternities of journeymen sprung up all over England and on the Continent, formed on the model of the craft guilds, as these were modelled on the plan of the old town or merchant guilds.

Among the regulations of these associations are found directions for *good behavior, correct moral habits, and faithful work.*

A noticeable and commendable provision, which seems to have in it a flavor of arbitration, and may be worth reviving, was, that in cases of disagreement attempts at compromise were to be made, first before their own fraternities, and secondly before those of the masters (the guilds of masters), to which the former were supplementary and recognized by them.

But in London the city authorities seemed to fear that they

would use the power of their unions as a means of raising wages, and towards the close of the fourteenth century proclamations enforcing the law of Edward III. were issued by the city authorities, forbidding all conspiracies and congregations of workmen. And when an attempt of some journeymen shoemakers was made to establish an association, under protection of the church, they were all nabbed and carried off to Newgate prison. As a substitute for this attempted independent organization, the city authorities decreed that the "serving-men" (journeymen) "should be under the authority of their masters, with right of appeal to the mayor and aldermen in case of grievance inflicted upon them." This arrangement appears to have been satisfactory to the workmen, as no further account is found of such fraternities within the city, though they existed without.

Strength and success at last produced the same effects on craft-gilds, as they had produced on town or merchant gilds. Monopoly of political power and wealth had their normal influence of creating that "haughty spirit which goeth before a fall." In the fifteenth century a capitalist qualification became a requisite of membership, and restrictions were created the tendency of which was to make even these craft-gilds the monopoly of families. This continued to be their characteristic in centuries following, so that, at last, Lord Bacon justly described them as "fraternities in evil," to suppress whose evil doings legislation was necessary. This was had, and the gilds were compelled to reduce the entrance fees demanded on admission of apprentices from 40s. to 2s. 6d.; and on being made freemen of the gild, to 3s. 4d. Masters were also forbidden to take fees for permitting apprentices to become freemen of the gild, or to require an oath from them that they would not set up work on their own account, at close of apprenticeship, except on leave first had of the masters.

Apprentice fees, nevertheless, continued to rise, and in a series of years by gradual increase, up to the year 1600, they reached the enormous sum of £800, the object being to prevent increase of apprentices and so to diminish competition by a non-increase of ultimate masters. These obstacles, reinforced by the privileges enjoyed by the children of gild-members (the

nepotism of family influence), so exasperated the apprentices that repeated violence occurred against persons and property.

It ought not to be omitted that these craft-gilds present other and noteworthy similitudes to their modern successors, the trades-unions,—one of them being a *reviling*, as it was called, or, as we should say, a *spotting* of a member who infringed any regulation or violated any principle established by gild rules. Every master-gild, and every fraternity of journeymen in Germany, kept a *black-list*, upon which was entered the names of each and every such violator, and notice thereof was sent throughout the country. As soon as such notice reached the ears of journeymen, *they all left the shop of the master reviled, or refused to work with the journeyman reviled*, until the reviled party had made atonement, was again honorably recognized and restored to full fellowship. This “reviling” was the severest punishment adopted, and was fearfully dreaded. So, too, we may record another similitude of ancient practice in Germany, and that is, that when a gild failed to “revile” a master who had infringed any of the trade customs of journeymen, or who had not acted in an honorable manner, as they judged, all the journeymen of the place quit work, and *then wrote forthwith to journeymen of other places, apprising them of their action and desiring them not to come thither to work*. Such occurrences took place at Mayence, Wurzburg and Augsburg, the most famous one being that of the Augsburg shoemakers, in 1726, which caused the imperial edicts of 1731 against this and other so-called abuses of handicraft. The omission to carry out these edicts, however, left the unions undisturbed, till further tumults led at last to their general suppression, a few only surviving to the present century.

From the exhaustive work, to which we are indebted for many of these facts, we learn that none of the movements of workmen grew out of dispute about wages. They appear to have been points of “honor that pricked them on,” rather than love of gain. The general understanding between masters and men being reasonably good, what feuds they had resembled family disagreements between members of the same household, more than latter-day quarrels between employers and employed.*

* In our own investigations of strikes in Massachusetts, only one was found to have increase of wage for its object.

Among the regulations of the gilds, the spirit of which seems to have become the heritage of trades-unions, we find the following:—

I. No person to exercise the trade unless he had served an apprenticeship of seven¹/₂ years, or had been instructed therein for that time by his own father.

II. No member to instruct anybody in the trade except apprentices regularly bound to him, or his own male children.

III. No member to employ any workman except such workman were “free of the company” (a free member of the gild).

IV. No journeyman to work with a non-member.

V. None to lend out, or put out any of his apprentices to work with any other master, because it will hinder and take away the living of free journeymen.

VI. No foreigner to be employed before a free journeyman.

VII. No householder (master) to keep above two apprentices at one time, unless he employ a free journeyman, and then he may keep three.

VIII. Every master, warden and assistant may keep three.

IX. By the Sheffield rule, no person to have more than one apprentice in his service at one time, nor to engage another before the former is in his last year, nor to take any for a less term than seven years.

Other accounts of the seventeenth century show that in the trades in which these rules did not exist (because they were not corporately authorized by law to make their own regulations), the workmen had fallen under the very oppressions, for the prevention of which the modern trades-unions had continued these same old rules. But, as already said, the craft-gilds had become capitalists, the degenerating power of wealth had begun to corrode them, and losing sight of their true objects, they became greedy of gain and dividend. Gradually introducing rules and restrictions which lost them the public favor, because oppressive to the public, and themselves falling into jealousies of craft against craft, and so becoming “a house divided against itself,” they fought each other in continuous and destructive law litigations. This degenerating of the fraternities had its obvious and natural effects in degenerating the condition of the workmen-members, and though reformation was better than abolition, they were not strong enough to effect

it against the power of the masters. These, getting rid of the workmen, still held together as gildsmen, by the strength they had acquired as capitalists, which very fact, though making them at first the convenience, made them at last the prey of kings. The first loan of the English gilds was made to Henry VIII. in 1544, and a taste of their quality in this respect, so sharpened the royal appetite of that polygamous uxoricide, that under pretence of zeal for the purity of religion, he confiscated the whole of their property in 1546, to the benefit of his privy purse, the alleged sin of the gilds being that they had devoted a portion of the income of their property in Roman Catholic times, to defraying the cost of supporting chantries (chapels) wherein masses were sung for the repose of the souls of deceased donors. This same process was continued under the reigns of Edward VI., Elizabeth, James I. and Charles I., the civil war and the Commonwealth not discontinuing the sweating. These burdens, and the rising of large individual capital and investment thereof in monstrous manufacturing establishments, the aggregating of immense numbers of persons in manufacturing towns, and the decay of individual manufacturing industry before the wide use of newly invented machinery, gave the final death-touch, and all that now remains of these once powerful industrial institutions in England, are their history, their shadow, and commemorations, in our day, by times and seasons of eating and drinking.

III.—COMBINATIONS BY TRADES-UNIONS.

The principle being imperative, as well as natural, that only by union can the weak be made strong, great objects be accomplished, and just rights and independence, in some degree at least, be maintained, clubs and friendly societies followed, in lapse of time, the dissolution of the old merchant and craft gilds. Exceptional combinations had, indeed, existed prior to 1562, but they were chiefly among members of the building trades,—trades themselves exceptional in their organization, enrolling as they did in their ranks, masters, workmen and sub-contractors, methods of wage and sub-wage being made matters of systematic regulation.

Under Act of 5th Elizabeth (chapter 4, 1562), founded on the methods of the craft-gilds, apprenticeship of seven years

was required prior to practice of any trade ; masters must have one journeyman for every three apprentices, and one more for each one above three ; twelve months' consecutive work and three months' notice of quittance was the right of every journeyman, his work to be twelve hours in summer and from day-dawn to dark in winter, with fixture of rate of wages at Easter, by town magistrates, or justices of the peace. This law was intended to check overstocking a trade with workmen, by limit of number of apprentices (who might become future masters and compete with them); to give regularity and permanence of work to journeymen and a "convenient proportion of wage" at all times. Its effect seems to have continued for upwards of 150 years, and to have fallen into disuse about the year 1720, when a transition of trade commenced from the long continued home-method, to that of aggregated labor in large factories. Gradually this old system passed with its manifest independence, its common sympathies between masters and men, its absence of jealousy and competition, its domesticity, its freedom and its opportunities for relaxation. Then gradually disappeared small masters, journeymen, apprentices, all being merged into a common operative class, under superintendents and overseers, with long and fixed hours, uncertain employment, specialty of work, sudden reduction of wage, dislike and distrust of employers, confinement, from the very necessity of the system, to close rooms, in a heated atmosphere, amid the deafening roar and rattle of machinery. The old craftsman is no longer a free craftsman. He is subordinated to another's will, controlled by fear of sudden discharge, loss of work, and therefore of wage, with consequent destitution of self and household, he and his fellows, at times, wranglers in a mimic war with a stronger power, in which the strength of capital, in alliance with the cravings of empty stomachs, is pretty sure of the victory. Thence sprang up a new kind of combination, wholly of workmen, into trade societies and unions,* all of which mul-

* The Comte de Paris, in his work, "The Trades-Unions of England" (chap. 2, p. 26), says : "The claim to regulate the rate of wages, without reference to the variation in the labor market, which is the charge nowadays urged against trades-unions, is a legacy from the legislation of the middle ages, and it was expressly in order to resist this tyranny that the first workingmen's combinations were formed."

In reference to this same claim and practice, Charles Reade, in his novel, "Put Yourself in his Place," makes one of the personages to ask : "But what drives us (the workmen)

tiplied greatly, after the repeal of the Elizabethan Act in 1809 to 1814, and spread among the shipwrights, the hatters, the tailors and other trades.

Specially noticeable (going back a little historically) are the movements in combination among the machine stocking weavers, a trade once wholly carried on under the family system, but afterwards absorbed, like the woollen, into great factories. Nowhere else was there such overt and bold disregard of the Apprentice Act as in this business, apprentices without limit being gathered even from work-houses, on bonus paid by parish authorities, to the exclusion of adult workers and the bringing of them to rags and starvation. Petitions and remonstrance were of no avail, and anger and revenge found vent in acts of violence, destruction of machines, thrashing of masters, and burning of factories. Then came in stringent laws against combination, and death-penalty for breaking and destroying machinery. Eighteen Luddites* were hung for this offence at York in 1813.

It is very manifest that fear of oppression has been an originating cause, as a general rule, of combination. It is of little consequence whether or not such fear be well or ill grounded. Doubtless in many instances it had reasonable cause. But with a class so sensitively jealous as hand-workers are, and always have been, the merest flaw of wind that may indicate a possible storm in their wage-atmosphere, at once excites apprehension. Why should it not? They who have a twelve or a six months' equipment, to meet such tempest, may defy its assault, but they who have not provision for six days, nor even six hours, and such has been, and is now the condition of the great majority of workmen under the wage system, may well dread its approach. Protection is sought then in association, and in combination of means, that when the storm breaks, mutual help may aid them to weather it. Hence came friendly societies and hence trades-unions.

A plainly traceable relationship, discernible in objects, organization, customs and rules, declares the common origin of

together?" And he replies to his own question, "The tyranny of our employers." And again: "What has kept us together?" "The bitter experience of hard work and little pay, whenever we are out of Union. Those who now direct the trades, are old enough to remember when we were all ground down to dust by the greed of masters."

* So called from Ludd, a prominent leader.

such institutions, all referring to the idea of defence and protection, and the general good of members. So that it is wholly erroneous to consider contemporary trades-unions to be an invention of modern times, and therefore responsible for originating rules, regulations and customs against which strong repugnance exists, and which are declared to be the offensive novelties of modern labor-strategy. They are nearly as old as free labor itself, and in just about the proportion in which they become associations of working-men only, have become objects of opposition, persecution and severity of legislation. Under Edward VI., any man convicted for the third time of joining them, had an ear cut off, and it was not until the year 1824 that they ceased to be persecuted, and that combination by workmen disappeared as a crime from the code of England. And certainly no good reason can be given, why, if no infraction of law takes place, employers and employed may not each have their unions and their combinations. In fact, why may not such unions be used, the parties assenting, for discussing through the agency of representative committees, points of difference and bringing them to an amicable settlement? We believe the effect would be salutary, and its tendency would be to terminate dislikes, bitterness, strife and violence.

Now, that these have existed, and yet exist, cannot be denied, and as they have generally been on the part of the workmen, the question naturally arises as to the reason thereof. The truth seems plain enough, that the farther you recede from a condition wherein educational culture and refinement have generated a rigid self-control, which keeps all passionate outburst under check, the nearer you approach to its opposite, a condition of ignorance, coarseness, and even barbarism, the pitiable subjects of which know but one means of rectifying wrong, and that means is sudden and effective violence. Now the condition of the masses of the working people of England, the great home of toil, has been and is, to a very great extent even now, that of ignorance, and such ignorance has kept them bereft of all ideas of self-control, and of that patient forbearance which leads, though slowly, to the sure, wisest and best mode of redressing grievance. Though born in a country nominally Christian, they are as ungodlike as heathen, and as John Foster, one of England's leading authors, declares, "the worst

educated people of any nation of Europe.” Now then as the Arabs and Camanches of British civilization, what better could be expected of them when impelled by the smart of what they considered wrongs, but that they should be Arabic, or Camanchic, or worse, in their revenge of wrong? English writers speak of the “dangerous classes” of England; would there have been such classes, had England been faithful to the duty it owed to all its classes, of educating all? Are there any such classes here, among the school-taught workmen of Massachusetts? Can anybody be found bold enough to apply such an epithet to them, or even to use the Southern phrase of “*white trash*,” in speaking of them? And has not the *school-house* “made them to differ,” and even to be themselves “the governing classes”? Were the governing classes of England “to put themselves in the place” of these so-called “dangerous classes,” we should expect better things, and this corroborates the argument in favor of such education as will secure better thoughts and wiser remedies. Matter is it of great joy, that at last the school-house is deemed to be better than the jail, and prevention wiser than cure, in a land where ignorance has always been the natural heritage of poverty. Had governments, instead of establishing monopolies, which, by accretion of wealth, generated a class which engrossed, as its special right, all leisure, culture, education, refinement, and became by degrees the sole possessors of the landed property of the realm,—instead of restricting the natural and inevitable rise of wage with progress of skill and increase of production,—had it “dignified labor,” by encouraging and aiding, under appropriate legislation, the educational and material advance of its industrial classes, neither trades-unions nor strikes had become the necessities of the workmen. But failing to do this, weakening the weak and strengthening the strong, the weak were driven to self-help, and resorted to combination, that they might acquire some measure of strength and power. Outlawed, also, by governments, and compelled to keep even their membership in any union a secret, they became, as it were, conspirators by necessity, and in secret meditated and prepared their resistance, and growing more and more intolerant, had no notion of using any argument but that of violence.*

* Comte de Paris on trades-unions.

From the voluminous reports of the Parliamentary Commission upon the subject of trades-unions, we learn that the only trades from which personal violence had emanated were those of the saw-grinders and the brick-makers, the workmen of which were among the very lowest in education, if they had any at all,—almost brutes in their ignorance. The former, one of the smallest of the English unions, is located at Sheffield, the capital of the steel manufactures of England. The employers long held a monopoly, which, in recent years, had been invaded by a competition that had disastrously affected the saw-grinding business, so that the workmen suffered fearfully from reduction of wage.

Now they had a trade-union, one of the rules of which was that no member could secede, as is practically the rule in the order of St. Crispin, and in other secret societies, and in the polity of the Federal Union. One of the members had seceded and gone to work while the union was on strike. On the 8th of October, 1866, an attempt was made to kill him by explosion of powder in the cellar of his house. Ten similar anterior explosions, and the use of noiseless air-guns, had actually taken life, and the mischief was attributed to the saw-grinders' union, though not established before the courts. This union had among its members, men described by Charles Reade,* as having "faces more canine than human, sharp as a hatchet, with foreheads villainously low, with hardly any chin, and (most characteristic of all) eyes pale in color and tiny in size, appearing to come together to consult, and then run back into the skull to get away from the sparks which their owners and their sires and grand-sires had been eternally creating." Now the neglect of its poor, for centuries, by England, is the culpable cause of even the existence of such men. A neglected brain makes its neglect felt all over the body. Innocent of all æsthetic culture and influence, and a desponding heart foregoing all hope, the facial features degenerate into a stolid dullness; the spiritless eye droops with loss of life and light; the pendent jaw keeps the yawning mouth agape for unwonted food; the pale cheeks collapse; the very nose settles back, and its puggism becomes confirmed and hereditary; the gait is shambling and awkward; and the subservient frame, crouching like

* In "Put Yourself in his Place."

Issachar's beneath its burdens, is bereft of all manliness, and seems to have lost its right to stand erect, and, as Milton says, "to show truth, wisdom, sanctitude, severe and pure, and with eye sublime, to declare absolute rule." Such was God's intent, but man has stepped in, and seems to have made even that intent all abortive. What answer shall be made when God shall "lay judgment to the line and righteousness to the plummet"?

With such a class of men, organized or unorganized, brute force (are they not brutes by neglect?) is the natural, the common, nay, is it not the only method of redress for real or supposed injury? But were these men to come into organization with men of brain and thought improved by culture, be it ever so little, they themselves will feel its influence, their propensity to violence will be checked, controlled and finally overcome. They can and must be educated out of it.

To return to these unions: it has been said that they were originally formed to resist unjust laws and oppressive usages, and, by some means, to bring about a modification of them, and that their early efforts were made to remove the obstacles in the way of a natural advance of wage, or in other words to put aside the obstructions that oppose the free working of the law of supply and demand. Over this law capital has a power and can control it to its own advantage and labor's disadvantage,—the former acting in the capacity of a master, and the latter in that of a servant,—the one able to direct its working, the other forced to yield. In the course of time, the prolonged contests of the latter with the former taught the latter the power of wealth, and as this power could by them only be brought into operation by the aggregation of such small means as they could contribute, they united their mites, and then found a new power arising that would be far more energetic than the forceful methods once used. Their natures changed and improved under such reasoning and such new means of advantage, and they began to turn their attention to the condition of their mates and to their relief in cases of sickness, death or deprivation of work. Let us look at some instances of these:

The "Amalgamated Society of Engineers" guarantees to each member 10s. (English) a week during sickness, and £12 to his family in case of death, with a pension of £20 16s. a

year, to members incapacitated by age. The "Amalgamated Association of Carpenters" paid out in 1865, £1,635 (nearly \$8,000) for benefits, and £2,790 (nearly \$12,000) for trade purposes, such as maintenance during strikes, support of members out of work, insurance of tools, relief under accidental injuries, and emigration bounties. It also paid £2,307 (nearly \$11,000) for general expenses, salaries, rents and printing, etc., etc., making a total of £6,742 (nearly \$33,500), and had then a balance of £3,764 (nearly \$18,000) on hand.*

It must be remembered that these large sums represent the weekly savings of hard-working men, who, though the advantages of their association may be distant and uncertain, nevertheless accept the sacrifice, that they or their children may enjoy the advantages derived from a powerful association, and secure a share in whatever advance of wage may be had by participation and investment in such union.

The collection, care, investment and distribution of so large sums of money, must necessitate a great deal of discussion in every local union. Now this very discussion nourishes thought, and thought begets thought, until from thought upon these matters a broader field of thought widens out. Members of schools of thought become thinkers by habit, and as practice insures perfection, the members of these unions become competent to reason and to argue with the trained thought of more learned men, and both in this country and in England they have participated, with great credit, in public discussions and have well sustained their part. These associations, now so powerful, have, by slow growth, and through much opposition, like an enemy invading an enemy's country, attained a magnitude which, by their very numbers, demands attention and respect. In England they count in their rolls 800,000 members, and in the United States more than half a million.

The largest organization is that which, like the old guilds, has selected a tutelary saint-name,—that of St. Crispin,†—and

*The Bricklayers' Union of Boston pay to their members \$10 per week during sickness resulting from accident. Their visiting committee, on finding other sickness, report it to the society, and the proper pecuniary assistance is afforded. The same principle is adopted by other unions.

† This name is derived from Saint Crispin and Saint Crispinian, martyrs A. D. 287, who went from Rome as missionaries to Gaul (France), about the middle of the third century. Fixing their home at Soissons, they preached the gospel at seasonable times, and worked also at their trade of making shoes, as Paul worked at his trade

numbers in this State 100 lodges, with an aggregate of 30,000 members. It is now a chartered association. (For an outline of its government and objects see p. 284-5, Report for 1869, Sen. Doc. 120, 1870.) The following testimony will give an idea of the influence of this fraternity upon the moral, social, educational and material welfare of its members:—

TESTIMONY OF A CITIZEN OF MARLBOROUGH CONCERNING THE LOCAL
INFLUENCE OF THE CRISPIN ORGANIZATION IN THAT TOWN.

“There are those who think the organization of Knights of St. Crispin works to the injury of our town. I think otherwise. During the seven years I have lived there, real estate has doubled in value, and during the two years of Crispinism, there have been more houses built than during the five previous years. This comes from the fact that our laborers are confined to Marlborough more than they used to be. This organization rather controls labor. Instead of folks coming from Canada, Maine, New Hampshire, and other places abroad, to work a few months and then carry their money away, the work is done by those who live, or propose to live there. The money earned is therefore spent in town. The interest of the working people in the town is increased. Little places are bought, and Marlborough is every way more prosperous than it would have been but for this labor movement. I am well acquainted with most of the members of the Crispin body. They are as orderly as could be expected of a mixed society, composed of different nationalities. As a class they are temperate. Many of them belong to temperance organizations. The Irish society and the two divisions of the Sons of Temperance are mostly patronized by the laboring classes. It has stimulated an interest in town affairs. The general effect of the society upon its individual members has been good. Should judge that it had improved their earnings, those at least of some classes, about 40 per cent.”

The following testimony of J. R., a Crispin, is corroborative of the claim of the favorable influence of this association:—

“Our organization has given us an advance of 40 per cent. in

tent-making. They were put to death for their religion by the governor of Gaul. The earliest recorded fraternity of shoemakers was established in 1647, by Henry Michael Buch (Bush), himself a shoemaker, and a man of great piety, who, under patronage of Baron de Reuty, a French nobleman, was created a free burgess, with power to employ journeymen and teach apprentices. After the fashion of the old religious gilds (p. 15,) he adopted St. Crispin as the tutelar patron of his fraternity, and the name has been perpetuated to our day.

wages, in the winter season. The bosses used to cut us down then. Indeed some of us think prices are 40 per cent. better right through. I certainly think I am a better man, a better citizen, and more interested in the affairs of the country I have adopted as a home, than I should have been but for the organization. This has come through associating with others. I have been brought in contact with smarter men than I ever thought of being myself. I have learned of others, and others have learned of me. The lodge room has given us practice. Three years ago designing men would come into our town meetings and get the crowd to go with them, because we didn't understand the way to put motions. They can't 'pull wool' over our eyes so easy now. A friend of mine who knows says, that eight years ago there was hardly an Irishman or a laboring man who could get up in town meeting and say anything; now there will be one in every four or five of these men who can get up and talk, owing to the practice they have had in the lodge. For myself I can say that I have not drank any liquor for fifteen years, and that I have taken a steady interest in the temperance movement. I can prove, however, that our Crispin organization has done more for temperance than all our temperance societies have done together. Have never known a proposition looking to violence to be brought up in the lodge or talked of in any way. Outside the meetings it has always been discouraged."

Of other unions little need be said. Their methods agree, in the main, with the methods of the Crispins. Their first efforts seem to be, in imitation of the guilds, to bring into their society all members of the trade. To do this, they hold meetings, invite non-members to attend by all available arguments, urging the benefits and power of association, the hope of increased wage, shorter hours, and help in any time of trouble. Thus increasing their ranks, they increase their power, and show it, as did the guildsmen of old, by refusing to work with non-members. In this they say they find a parallel among clergymen, who will not exchange with members of a different denomination, and with physicians who refuse fellowship with practitioners not of their regular medical society. In the use, too, of epithets, and in the application of uncomplimentary terms, they say they find precedent in other and more courtly associations, substituting for heretic and quack, epithets somewhat less polished. Further they say, that in the principle they advocate of equal payment for workmen of differing degrees of skill, they

find parallel in the fact that members of legislative bodies, wherever such bodies exist, receive precisely the same pay, whatever may be their legislative skill, and receive a full day's pay, whether or not they have worked a full day, or considerably less than a full day, their pay not being regulated either by their skill or by their hours of labor.

Another means adopted by them to strengthen their organization, and secure results favorable to themselves and their craft, is, after the manner of the old craft guildsmen, to refuse to impart a knowledge of their "mysterie," or trade, to any person but of their own choice,—claiming that their skill is their own property, acquired with much slow effort, and that they may, of right, withhold or impart it, as they themselves shall deem proper. The professions, so called, they add, are protected by the cost of acquiring the requisite knowledge, by the safeguard of thorough examinations by competent parties, while the trades, having no protection known to law or custom, may be overrun by inexperts, as they were in England on the introduction of machinery. They therefore seek to protect their calling by keeping down the number of admitted apprentices, as was the intent of the Elizabethan statute, that, in the end, the number of skilled craftsmen may not be in such excess as to affect the matter of wage and earnings.

One of the strongest claims, and one eminently just for trade-unions, is that they enable the workmen, by the power of numbers, to stand more nearly upon an equality with employers. This advantage of itself is compensation for all sacrifices. Upon this point, an article in the "North American Review," for January, 1868 (E. L. Godkin), says:—

"If the laborer could wait and hold out, as other dealers do, he would inevitably force the capitalist in the end to pay him the price which the state of the market and the amount of his profits justify; but he cannot hold out. He may know that his employer is making 100 per cent. on capital, while paying him as if he were making only 10 per cent.; and he may feel that abstract justice, as well as a prudent regard for his own future, and that of his family, demand that he should insist on having a share in this sudden prosperity; but he cannot insist on it. For if he ask for it, and support his demand by a refusal to work, he runs the risk of starving and seeing his children starve.

“It is this inability of the individual laborer to bargain with the capitalist, on equal terms, which has led to the formation of the trades-unions. The trades-unions—a combination of great bodies of laborers acting in concert—have, in reality, put the laborer and capitalist for the first time on equal terms, economically considered. We are not now defending or eulogizing these organizations. Many of their effects on trade, and on the character of the working classes, are most pernicious; but they have rendered, and are rendering to the working classes, one essential service,—by enabling them, for the first time in their history, to contract with the masters as free agents, and on equal terms, and therefore to force the masters to base the rate of wages on profits, and not on the laborer’s ignorance or necessities. They are, in fact, slowly converting the practice of at once proportioning wages to profits into an established usage, and they answer all objections to the legitimacy of this process, economically considered, by pointing to the example of clergymen, lawyers, brokers and divers other professions, in which the rate of wages is determined by usage, and not by competition.”

Compared with the whole mass of workers, there is a limited number of trades-unions in Massachusetts. Numerous reasons conspire to produce this state of things. Prominent among them is an intense feeling of individualism, which is fostered by many of the established institutions of the country. A man feels it to be of more importance that he should have a good paying job himself, than that his fellows prosper also. Another impediment is that frequent change of residence which renders evening meetings for consultation often practically impossible; and this difficulty is aggravated by the number of hours of labor required, taken in connection with the distance to be travelled between work and home, and between home and place of meeting. Some unions have overcome this in a measure, by adopting a system which requires but a limited amount of personal attendance, most of the necessary business being transacted by letter. For instance, there are but few cigar makers’ unions in the State, though their membership is widely distributed, being found in the smallest villages where anything is done at the business; while the iron puddlers have no local union, but members transact their business as individuals, through a national head-quarters. There are great advantages, however, in having a place of resort and well attended meetings.

In reference to obstacles of the sort already alluded to, a person of some experience in the matter, says :—

“The members were obliged, for the most part, to perform ten hours of severe manual labor, remote from their homes, to return for their tea, change their dress and attend to necessary home duties, then to come into the city from a distance of five or more miles, the meeting beginning at eight, ending at ten, and so preventing one’s reaching home much before midnight. It needs hardly be stated that these conditions in a few years excluded the thoughtful element, though not before its work was partly done in placing before the community some idea of the situation. These remarks, largely true of the building trades in all our cities, indicate the prodigious obstacles in the way of movements of labor. While the arbitrary character of labor organizations arises from the fact, that in their discipline they are essentially military, yet many of the objections to them by working men are of purely circumstantial nature, and grow out of the lack of time and culture, as well as the inexperience, impulsiveness and excessive fatigue of those who belong to them.”

The efficiency of trades-unions is still further impaired by superior attractions and demands in other directions, such as the home, the lecture room, the religious meeting, the concert, and the secret society with its friendly and reformatory aims, on the one hand; and on the other, the dram-shop and the billiard hall.

Doubtless, the possession of the ballot is to-day felt to be the strongest weapon in the hands of labor. On this point, a mechanic of very conservative tendencies, and a thoroughly creditable witness, gives expression to the following views :—

“To my mind, this reserve power will so modify and control the progress of the question as to supersede the necessity of trade organizations, or influence them to take on the beneficial and recognized character of similar associations among professional men. This will not occur, however, unless the political and industrial complications now maturing, force the intellect and conscience of the nation to a righteous settlement of the now prevailing antagonism.”

The educating influences of trades-unions lead in the direction of better methods by prudent steps, and not by sudden

leaps, on the natural principle that walking comes before running, and that considerate thought should precede action. The coöperative experiments, so forcibly held up as a cure for the ills of labor, had, in this State, their origin in just these influences. This finds positive proof in the fact that coöperation by the moulders of Somerset, the cigar-makers of Westfield, the shoemakers of North Adams, the tailors of Boston and others, all sprang from the trades-unions of their several crafts.

It should not be forgotten that where labor is most aggregated, and where the hours of work are highest, and the rate of wage lowest, as in the manufacture of textile fabrics, the system of repression is such that, practically, organization is impossible.* Those who attempt it are at once found out and ostracized. Examples of heroic suffering for the vindication of this principle can be easily found. Any terrorism which prevents the organization of unions, or suppresses them when organized, is sure to leave behind it an undesirably vindictive feeling that is apt to suggest violence as the readiest compensation. Taking counsel of Gamaliel,† it were better to let them alone; for if they have no principle of permanent life, they will die out of themselves; but if founded on the verities of right and justice, neither men nor companies of men can finally prevail against them.

To the objection that trades-unions foment strikes, ‡ perhaps no better answer can be given than that contained in Comte de Paris' "Trades-Unions of England" (page 72), as follows:

"The advocates of trades-unions have no difficulty in proving that strikes occur as frequently in districts where these societies are un-

* See p. 324 (middle), Report of 1870.

† Acts v: 38.

‡ Sir Archibald Alison, at a discussion at Glasgow in 1860, on trades-unions, said that there were two views entertained of trades-unions by the opposing parties, the masters believing them to combine the evils of a plague spot on society, a pestilence on the human mind, and a source of famine to all concerned in them; and the men believing them to be an indispensable compensation against the weight of concentrated capital. Within his own knowledge crimes of deep atrocity had been perpetrated by unionists, but under an improved state of feeling among workmen, leading to a conviction that all violence damages their cause, it had entirely disappeared. During the great strikes in the southern counties of Scotland in 1852 and '57, with 30,000 men on strike and 100,000 out of work, no violence whatever took place. Declaring further his opinion that strikes are a necessary preventive against the power of capital, he advocated, as a remedy for their prevention, a more kindly intercourse between masters and men.

known as in those in which they are accused of fomenting them. They maintain that if they do sometimes lengthen their duration, on the other hand they often prevent them from breaking out."

In all unions of workingmen, the prevalent intent is, sooner or later, to secure a larger share of the proceeds of their manual industry, more of the wealth that they have helped to produce, and more of the leisure that belongs to free men, and by means of, and beyond this, a better condition at home, a better education, a better position in society, with a better claim to the benefits of political life, and a stronger influence in government, or, in other words, to a full and free opportunity to acquire a just share in the limitless wealth God has created for man.

IV.—STRIKES.

The general definition of the word *strike*, whether it be in its object aggressive or resistant, has application to workmen solely. But on examination of the word, without regard to prevalent usage, its rigid interpretation will be found to imply an interruption of relations existing at a given time between employers and employed, such interruption tending, though not necessarily, to cessation of labor; the strike commencing with the interruption of these relations, and ending with either their renewal, or the formation of new relations. Under this definition the party that takes the initiative is the party that strikes. For example, if the interruption be made by the employed for advance of wage, the employed strike against the employer; and if the interruption be made by the employer for reduction of wage, the employer strikes on the employed. This is equally true if the interruption is caused by change of hours of labor, or change of method.

Under this definition the question arises whether strikes are the best means of accomplishing the object sought.

To answer this question we should first take a look at the relative position of the parties concerned, the workmen and their employer. These really stand in the relation of buyer and seller, the workman being the seller, though but of a single article, his labor; and this, be it noted, he must sell at some price, or want for means of living; and the employer being the buyer and in indispensable need of the commodity, though

perhaps not instant need, his advantage being that capital giving him power over necessity, he can wait. That is, the one must sell and at once, though the other need not buy at once.

There is, however, as Mr. Thomas Hughes justly observes, a point of difference not to be ignored in the marketing of labor, and that is that this labor, being of living men, is a different thing from a dead commodity of ordinary traffic, and therefore cannot be put upon the rigid thumb-rule of supply and demand. The rule will not work, and the attempt to enforce it by putting living men and inanimate things on the same footing, has been a fruitful source of antagonism, and always will be; its power being intensified by the stronger party keeping itself aloof, with the old cry of "no interference between us and our men."

Now the workman, under pressure of his instant necessity, yields and sells for what he can get, and then looks about for means to strengthen his individual weakness, and so to raise himself more nearly to the level of the employer and command a better price for his article. These means he finds in a combination with his fellow-workmen of the same craft, upon the united labor of whom the employer is relying to render his capital productive, and without whose efforts his investment would not be remunerative. Knowing this, and knowing, also, the ability of the new combination, and feeling that their labor commodity is selling at too low a figure, the union determines to withdraw it wholly from the market, such withdrawal being termed a strike. And not only so, but they decide to attempt to control the market by monopolizing all the labor within their reach by purchase, or by preventing its coming to the vicinity of their market. This whole operation has its parallels in mercantile transactions, and is simply a withdrawal, a buying up, and a hoarding for an advanced price of a marketable commodity, and it is not easy to see why, if such transaction be right and shrewd in the latter case, it is not in the former.

Now most people, when a strike is heard of, leap to the judgment that a strike is "evil, and only evil continually." And to this judgment they are moved because it is assumed that the words strike and violence are mere interchangeable terms, an error sometimes, though not frequently, justified by undeniable acts of violence and even cruelty, inflicted upon persons con-

scientiously refusing to aid the strikers. We have already said that violence has been the sudden and most unwise resort in some instances of strikes, a resort which is the natural and common impulse of rude men, as many workmen are. It is, nevertheless, difficult to see any real relationship between the two, or that acts of violence are the legitimate offspring of a cessation from work by a body of combined workmen. The right of neither party is infringed, until some such act, overt or covert, leading to or provoking violence, occurs. In the spinners' strike at Fall River (August, 1870), a non-striking operative was assaulted by the strikers, as alleged, though not proven on trial. At the same time the treasurer of the mill at which the assaulted party worked, fearing violence from a crowd in front of his premises, gives an alarm of fire, none existing, thus increasing the crowd. Upon this crowd the assembled firemen discharged water from their steamers, intensifying the angry excitement, and leading to further demonstration of force in array of constabulary and parade of militia. In the above case the party charged with assaulting was arrested, tried and acquitted.

That violence, though sometimes accompanying strikes, as at some in this country, and at the strike of the building trades in London, in 1860, and at Sheffield, by the saw-grinders and others, when it went to the extent of murder and acts of atrocious criminality, is not necessarily a consequence thereof, is abundantly proved by the great strike of 17,000 operatives in Preston, in 1854, and at very many others, here and abroad. Nobody was coerced, while for thirty-six weeks the most terrible sufferings were patiently endured in the hope of better pay. Here it was simply a peaceable withdrawal of labor from a market of unremunerative wage, the result of a combination as justifiable as the combinations, public or private, (for there have been both), of the manufacturers of Manchester, Halifax and Bradford, in England, or of manufacturers in the United States, for specific objects. It is only when they resort to violence, that strikes overstep the bounds of mercantile operations in frequent practice. Labor is the workman's only capital. When he finds his capital is not yielding him what he deems it to be worth, or what he thinks he can get for it, he withdraws from the business, that is, he interrupts the existing relation, and waits for the formation of a new one. Such step is to him

his only and his best way to achieve his object. In the other case, of resisting reduction, he is aided by his unwillingness to surrender a portion of his social independence, which no man ever ought to do, or ought to be expected to do. He prefers, and rightly, to risk something in the contest.

Nothing is more common, nor is it ever matter of complaint, than the asking of higher wage by an individual employé, or by two or three, of his employer, and a consequent interruption of old, or formation of new relations. Why should it be matter of complaint, or of blame, or why should the step be characterized by a cant word, when these relations are interrupted by larger number of employés? The claim or the assertion that the laborer has no right of control over his labor, how much he shall sell, and for what price, and that it is the prerogative of capital to determine the question, is worthy of a much darker age, and is a fruitful source of misunderstanding and of bad feelings.

Let us now look at the other side, that of the employer, and inquire if circumstances may not arise which would render it not only justifiable, but a positive necessity for him to reduce the wage-rate of his employés. Take a cotton manufacturer for illustration. He finds after a long experience, that there is a relation between profit and wage, and such that a change in one, immediately and naturally affects the other. He is entitled under the present system, to a certain remuneration upon his capital invested, and that remuneration ought to be such as to induce him to keep his investment undisturbed, both for his own sake, and that of his work-people. Let us suppose it to be eight per cent., and that with that rate, a spinner in his employ can be paid two dollars a day for each of the 313 working days of the year, or as long as that percentage is realized. But suppose powerful competition to arise, or the raw material suddenly to advance, or the manufactured cloth suddenly to decline, or both, and the result to be that the eight per cent. drops to three, or less. Now the employer, not having the power to control the price of either the raw or the wrought material, or to stop competition, or to monopolize the trade, has but one other resort left, and that is to strike at the wage-rate. And he is not only justified, but compelled to make this reductive strike, for he has, if in charge of a stock corporation,

besides his own interests, those of others, as stockholders, many of whom may be persons disqualified, from various causes, from labor, and wholly dependent upon dividend for a subsistence, and he has no right to injure them for the benefit of others. Should he, therefore, continue the existing rate of wage, then, profits diminishing, he must encroach upon capital to sustain wage, and that opens the way to a gradual sinking of capital, to depreciation of stock-value, and suspension or stoppage of the business, and then the workmen are worse off than they would be under a reduction.

Now there are certain matters of very grave importance that workmen must not overlook, yet which there is danger of their overlooking, because of want of full and satisfying knowledge of the actualities of certain kinds of business, a knowledge attained by those only who are in intimate connection with the inner details of their management. The businesses to which we refer are those in which great, and sometimes sudden fluctuations take place in both the cost of raw material worked up, and the market price of the article manufactured. To these fluctuations the manufacture of textile fabrics is especially exposed. At present (1870) the manufacture of certain styles of cotton goods is not remunerative, and this is manifested in the low market value of shares, and the small or no dividends paid to stockholders. Workmen may be assured that when the latter get no remuneration for their investment, they themselves and the necessary officials of an establishment are the only parties that do.

Take an actual example. During six months, ending in June, 1870, a certain cotton mill in Massachusetts manufactured its goods at a total cost, including raw material, labor, repairs, etc., etc.,—of $40\frac{5}{10}$ cents per pound, and received on sales of its goods $41\frac{9}{10}$ cents per pound, showing a profit of $1\frac{4}{10}$ cents per pound. These figures worked out, gave a profit on its total capital of $2\frac{8}{10}$ per cent. Now any advance on the wages of its operatives would have been manifestly impossible, except at the loss to stockholders in even this discouraging percentage. Nor could they sell out their stock, except at material loss, for its market value, in consequence of the general depression of the business, was far below par, and any sales would have entailed serious and disastrous losses.

A similar state of things might exist in other branches of business, and workmen under such conditions must accept the reduction or seek work elsewhere. So, too, on the other hand, employers on return of favorable times and profitable returns on large sales, ought not to object to an advance of wage. The statement would seem to be a square statement, to be as broad as it is long.

This matter of profit on capital invested is complicated by the feeling of the capitalist or shareholder, that a good profit should be the minimum and a *high* profit the general rule. He applies to the workman a reduction in wage as soon as the margin begins to narrow below his eight per cent., without reference to previous high profits, of which the laborer had no fair share. Could it be understood that the capital was to earn for itself only a fair and moderate percentage, but was to earn that, surely, in a series of years,—then were a part of the earnings over this to be set aside as a fund for the enlargement of wages, and the remainder to be devoted to purposes of repairs, insurance, &c., &c., incidental to the business,—then reduction of wages would be seldom, if ever, necessary, under judicious and *honest* management. Opportunity should be open, possible and inviting to the workman to invest in the establishment for which he works, and so to make the establishment measurably coöperative.

Here occasion may be taken to say, that it would contribute to an improved mutual understanding, if when a reductive rate is decided upon by employers, something more than a mere announcement of that decision were made to employés, by statement of the causes compelling that step,—as has been made by some employers, both here and abroad. Such recognition of their ability to comprehend the subject, and such appeal to their reason and good sense, would tend to prevent ill-feeling, to smooth down the unavoidable hardship of the step, and would lead in the direction of conciliation and arbitration, both of which are destined to lessen the difficulties surrounding the relations between capital and labor. And it may further be suggested that the general refusal of employers to hearken to the statement of employés, on the ground of their belonging to organizations, is an encouragement of strikes, and these are sure

to be quickened, if a spirit of anger and obstinacy ally itself to either or both parties in the strife.

Strikes against change of method occur when business is passing from one form or condition to another, as occurs when machinery takes the place of hand-work, as in the shoe business. Such strikes are now of less frequent occurrence than formerly, machinery seeming to be successfully pleading its own cause; even the steam shovel, which infringed upon the domain of the lowest and least cultured labor, seeming to have been admitted without objection, though it may indeed be, that it did not interfere with any fixed and permanent local employment.

Change of method also implies the doing away of old and established rules or customs, considered by employers as a privilege and by employés as a right. Of this kind was the unsuccessful strike at the Salisbury Mills (Amesbury, Mass.), in 1851, against the abolition of luncheon-time (a privilege enjoyed in England by laborers of the older days), when operatives left the mill for refreshment at about ten o'clock, A. M.

Of this kind, also, were the numerous successful strikes against the *truck-system* or the system of payment by orders upon a store, sometimes belonging with its goods to the employer, a method not yet out of practice in Massachusetts. It was once believed, both here and in England, that it would be impossible to carry on the manufacturing business on the system of wage-payment in cash, because it would endanger the morals of the working people, by placing in their unaccustomed hands the means of gratifying their appetites and passions. The same sort of argument was used, and is yet used, against any reduction of the hours of labor, it being alleged that the time conceded will be wasted in riotous living. Yet the hours of labor in factories have been reduced from sixteen per day to eleven, with a corresponding improvement in the moral and physical condition of the operatives, and a further reduction would have similar good result.

To accomplish this reduction, have occurred many of the most notable strikes, those, for instance, of the building trades in Massachusetts, for ten hours, and those of the ship carpenters and caulkers for eight,—all these being successful, as was the strike in 1866, at Fall River, which resulted in the adoption

and continuance of ten hours for a period of twenty-one months.

We wish to be distinctly understood that we believe, and all the working men with whom we have conferred on the subject, agree with us, that strikes, like wars, are a crude, costly and awkward way of accomplishing a purpose. And so, trade-unionists think that the best way to avoid a strike is to be prepared for it, as the nations of Europe think, that to avoid war, it is best to be prepared for it, and so their standing armies are kept in constant readiness. But as wars are indicative of evil systems in government, so strikes are indicative of evil systems in labor, and, as a general rule, they are each co-existent with absolutism. Under our coöperative form of States-Union, the necessity of preparation for war, by means of a standing army, has mainly disappeared, nor would there have been need for the vast armaments of the late contest, had not the absolutism of slavery impeded the perfect working of our governmental system. And so, also, it is believed, that strikes will disappear when more time for thought and culture shall have prepared the way for a change from absolutism to coöperation in the realm of labor, and when capital and labor being merged into unity, there shall be no points at issue.

V.—STRIKES IN MASSACHUSETTS.

We now proceed to give the result of our inquiries into eight strikes that occurred in the State in 1870, taking them in the order of our investigation. The information was derived from witnesses summoned under authority of the Resolve creating the Bureau, and examined partly at office, and partly at the hereinafter named places—their testimony being phonographically reported.* Other and valuable information on collateral subjects, taken at the hearings, will be found in their appropriate places in this Report. The strikes occurred as follows:—

* By James H. Slade, Boston.

PLACES.	Trades.	Objects.
1. Fall River,	Cotton Spinners,	Against wage reduction.
2. Lynn,	Shoemakers, .	Against wage reduction.
3. North Adams,	Shoemakers, .	Against wage reduction.
4. Marlborough,	Shoemakers, .	Not definable.
5. Worcester,	Wire-drawers, .	Change of method.
6. Weymouth,	Nailers, . .	Against wage reduction.
7. Randolph,	Shoemakers, .	Increase of wage.
8. Needham,	Frame-knitters, .	Against wage reduction.

I. FALL RIVER.

On the 22d of August, two spinners from this city, who desired that their names should not be published, fearing that employment might be hereafter denied them, were it known that they had testified, appeared on summons at our office, and made reply to inquiries as follows:—

TESTIMONY OF TWO SPINNERS.

Wednesday, June 29th (1870), notices were posted in the various mills of the city, informing the operatives that after the making up of the accounts for the month (these accounts were made up from the 1st to the 5th of each month for the month preceding), a reduction of wages would take place, equivalent on the average to $7\frac{1}{2}$ or 8 per cent. That evening a meeting of all the spinners in the city was held, at which it was agreed that a petition should be sent in, requesting their employers to reconsider their decision, as it was believed that the reduction was not at that time imperative. No notice was taken of the petition. On the following Wednesday, there was another meeting of the spinners at which it was unanimously agreed to send in a memorial, setting forth a willingness to submit the matter to arbitration, or to accede to two-thirds of the reduction, provided the other third was not insisted on. That is, it was proposed to reduce the pay by taking off three-eighths of a cent per skein, and we asked that only two-eighths of a cent be taken off, thus allowing us the other eighth. It was further set forth that

if this proposition was refused, the spinners desired that the memorial should be considered as giving the usual two weeks' notice of intent to leave. We sign no agreement in regard to leaving when we enter the employ of the mills, but there is usually a paper posted up stating that two weeks' notice must be given of such intent on our part. The rule is enforced unless there is some one ready at hand to take your place. The employer gives no such notice when about to discharge any one, but sends you away any time when he feels like it. In this case the spinners in each spinning room selected a man to carry the notice to the office, a copy in print having been previously sent. No answer was received in any shape, form, or manner. We worked along till the end of the two weeks, and then quit, according to the notice we had given. The suspension of work by the spinners resulted in a lock out of the other operatives; some left on Saturday, others on Monday; one mill ran five days on filling bought in Rhode Island, but within a week all the mills were shut down but two. Matters have been in this state now for five weeks. Everything upon the streets is quiet and peaceable. There has been no disturbance or violence of any sort. The spinners have used no force to compel any one to stop work who wished to keep on. The only force or compulsion on the part of our employers has been a notice to some of us, members of the spinners' committee, to quit our tenements, with no payment allowed until we leave, and with a statement that we will never be allowed to work again at the mills where we have been employed. We do not call this thing a strike. There have been some strikes in previous years. There was one for shorter time in October, 1866. It was started to secure ten hours and lasted two weeks, the owners then agreeing to give us the shorter time on and after January 1st, 1867, which agreement they fulfilled. After working awhile under the reduced time, we were notified that our wages would be reduced. So we struck again and succeeded in keeping them unchanged. We worked twenty-one months on the ten hour plan, and then the old rule as to hours was restored, and the increased speed of machinery which followed the reduction, was continued. No strikes followed these changes. We kept on our work as usual. These movements have no direct connection with the present strike."

The testimony of these two witnesses was taken *before* the alleged assault upon a spinner at Fall River, and before the exciting acts which led to the calling out of firemen, police and military. Subsequently, and while engaged on other matters, we heard of further movements in that city, and summoned Mr.

18. Brayton, Treasurer and Director of the Durfee Mills,
 De which the difficulties occurred. His testimony was as
 follows:—

TESTIMONY OF D. A. BRAYTON.

Sometime previous to July 1st we gave our help notice of a cut down. Some of them five per cent., some six, some seven, some eight, some as high as ten per cent., while a portion were not cut down at all. We had talked about it a great while—ever since last December, when they began to reduce about Boston, and were cutting down all through Rhode Island,—as well as in February and March, when cut downs became general. At that time the manufacturers talked it over and concluded to keep on as long as it was possible, for we claim that we lose nothing by paying the highest wages, because we get the best help and always have plenty of it at our doors. But the business grew worse and worse. We were wearing out our machinery and losing money, and so, finding we could not make both ends meet, we determined to cut down, and did so. I don't think any one had an idea there would be a turn out. About the 2d of July we had a letter come from the spinners requesting us to deduct one-third from the cut down. I was getting into my carriage to drive out of the yard, when two spinners came up and handed me the communication. I read it, and they wished to know if I would reply to it. I said, certainly; but it didn't need any, as the matter had been under consideration for from four to six months. I said further: I think you should be thankful we don't have to cut down again; we are paying all we can afford, and more than any one else. One of them commenced arguing the case; so I stood and talked the matter over. Finally he spoke of the high price of beef here and in England, to which I replied that it was very high here, but not so high as to prevent any honest laboring man from having it on his table three times a day. "Well," said he, "we can't have salmon." At that I got a little excited, and answered: "By thunder! if you are going to count on salmon I can't stand here to argue with you." They didn't come again to see me, but sent another letter. The result was they struck and the mill stopped. Two weeks ago we tried to make a start, as many of our hands had told us they wanted to go to work. A good many spinners, even, had been to the superintendent and signified this desire. I ordered him to commence when he could find half a dozen spinners ready to go in. He thought he could get them. I told him not to be in a hurry, as I wished to be sure.

When the day came that we were to start (Monday), instead of half a dozen, only one came. Not wanting to make a "fiz," I was in doubt what to do, but about nine o'clock started; by noon we had two men, and before night three. Tuesday we had six pairs of mules going, with the prospect on the next day of having ten pairs. We shut down at seven o'clock. Tuesday night, at six o'clock, I was standing on the office steps congratulating myself on the favorable aspect of things, thinking that in two days the mill would be half running, and in ten days fully so. Having an engagement with a gentleman at another mill at half-past six, I went down to meet him, and had been there but a little while before word was sent me that there were five hundred people at our gates. I jumped into my carriage to hasten back, and on the way called at the police office where I saw one of our spinners bloody, and brutally hurt; I said, "Sanderson, how is this?" "They gave me a tremendous pounding." "Well, stay here till I go to the mill." I took a police officer with me, and picked up one or two more on the way; but when I got there, things had become quiet. In the course of an hour I went back where the man was and got him home. He lived some ways off, and I was afraid to have him go home and stay there; so I offered to take him to my house and send a carriage for his family. This offer he declined, and I ordered a public carriage and sent an officer with him, giving Sanderson the privilege of returning in the carriage to my house, if, on getting home he had fears for himself or family. He stayed at home and the next morning came again. I had said to him the night before that I didn't suppose he would come to work the next day, to which he had answered: "If I am alive, I shall come." So on Wednesday morning I sent a carriage with a policeman for him, and continued through the week to send him back and forth under guard of from two to six policemen. The next week he came and went alone. Part of the distance to his house is through woods, and I offered him the use of a tenement near by and also to move him in; but he preferred to stay where he was. He was a pretty resolute man, and I gave him something to defend himself with.

This spinners' association is a body which the manufacturers have never recognized or had anything to do with, in any way; but we find that it prevents people from coming to Fall River to work. We have hired a great many people from out of town, but when they came they were threatened, intimidated, and induced to go back. A few days ago one of the corporations sent out and hired twenty-eight men. Part of them came, but only to take the next train back. Their fares are paid, and sometimes money over and

above their fares is given to them. A mill joining ours bought some filling and started by setting the weavers to work, and some twenty or thirty spinners were found on hand, trying to get them to stay out. It is now and has not been since the beginning of the strike a question of dollars and cents, but a question as to who shall rule.

The average pay of our spinners, for the three months previous to the strike, was \$2.08 per day. Some of those who came out went into Rhode Island and worked for nine shillings, which is about the usual pay of spinners through New England. With the cut down they could make from \$1.92 to \$2,—a reduction of about fifteen cents a day.

The notices sent us by the spinners were the same as those printed in the papers at the time. We regarded the second communication as a notice to quit work, accepted it as such, and paid the men off.

The sending for the fire companies occurred on the night after Sanderson was beaten. After that beating affair, I went for the mayor, got him into the back-room of our bank, and told him I wanted the aldermen called together that night to take some steps in regard to the matter, as it was too high-handed an outrage to let go. After talking the matter over, he said, "I don't know about it; if I should call them together and they did not coincide with your views, you would think we were in sympathy with them and their views." My answer was, "I don't care whether you are in sympathy with them or not. I want to know if our lives and property are to be protected. If you are not going to vindicate the law, our next course is to call on the governor." The result was he called the aldermen together. Meanwhile I had called on Mr. Chase and Colonel Borden, and we were on hand to see what the board of mayor and aldermen would do. At this meeting I heard for the first time that another of our men had been brutally assaulted. Four aldermen spoke. They said they would do everything that could be asked, and recommended that the mayor should issue a proclamation, that \$100 reward be offered for each person found guilty of an assault upon those parties, and that the mayor put on a hundred special policemen, or as many as he thought fit. This action was all that a reasonable man could ask. At three o'clock in the afternoon rewards were offered by posters about the streets, but the proclamation appeared only in the corner of the newspaper, where no one could see it, and no special police had been appointed. That night (Wednesday), we found the police at our mill. I was there about six o'clock. The crowd began to gather. They had got to be about two hundred strong, and were coming from every direction, when I told the day watchman to go for the city marshal.

Concluding I could do it myself in half the time, I jumped into my carriage and drove away as fast as I could, got the city marshal, and brought him back with me, he meanwhile ordering his force to follow on foot. He says to me, "You and the help shall be protected." I told him I thought it was pretty protection when a man had to go home between police officers and stay all night in the woods. "Well," he says, "what do you want done?" I said I would like to have a place cleared with room for the work-people to pass out without being pushed and hauled about by a crowd. So he tried to drive the crowd by switching at them with a little switch. It was like switching grasshoppers, and had no effect. By this time the police had got there, and they tried their hand. The superintendent and two or three others kept telling me to ring the fire-bell; but I said "No." The mayor did not come with the police; so, after I found them overpowered, I sent a man for the mayor. He came back saying the mayor was not to be found at his office. I called for the key of the alarm* and turned it on, refusing to allow any one else to do it, as I wished to be blamed myself if there were to be any censure. The engines came up, and inquiry was made for the fire. I replied that there was no fire; but said, "Just drive into our gates; we want to get these people out of the street." They came in, hitched on, and, under the direction of the city marshal, fired water. It didn't amount to anything, because the water would only go so far—120 or 130 feet—and the people went just beyond its reach and there stood. I have been blamed for ringing the fire-alarm; but, under all the circumstances, I think I should do the same thing again. After the fire-alarm, there was great hooting and halloing, and a man would be taken between two policemen, with one or two behind him, and rushed out. I told them I would not do that; I would right about face, pistol in hand; I would not run in that way. The mayor having come up, I begged him to make some arrests that night, but none were made. He got up before the crowd and advised or ordered them, in the name of the Commonwealth, to go home.

The ringing of that fire-alarm brought the thing to a head. The next morning (Thursday) the city was all astir, and the mayor woke up to the thing. He called for a hundred special police, and put on all that could be got, though very poor men at that. The military and State police were called out, the latter arriving at seven o'clock in the evening, quarter of an hour after our mill had shut

* The wisdom of adding numbers to a crowd already large enough to create alarm is very questionable. It would seem to have been better to have called it away by alarm from some other point.

down. I had advised the mayor the night before to call out the State police, but don't know who recommended or called out the military, nor under what forms it was done. There were two companies in the city ready, but the colonel feared that one company would not be true, as there were a good many spinners in it. Colonel Borden is at the head of the fire department as well as commander of the troops. I knew nothing about the military until I saw men on the streets in uniform. The military had great influence in allaying excitement, as you will see when I relate an incident which occurred at that time. Mr. McCreary, the superintendent of the Granite Mill, had a spinner that was anxious to go to work. The day the troops were to be called out, this spinner came to him and said something ought to be done—the military ought to be called out. "Why?" says Mr. McCreary. "Because up in Orange Street there are two rum-holes where thirty men are being armed, and there will be bloodshed to-night." Mr. McCreary did not let on that he knew anything about the troops, and tried to persuade him that it was all bosh about men's arming themselves for a fight. About two o'clock this man ran in to the superintendent and said, "It is all right now; the military have come, for I have seen them." This shows that he had apprehensions. There are rum-shops on Orange Street, and that region is known as a sort of rendezvous for spinners. They have an office where nothing out of the way occurs, but when anything is to be done that is not all right, they have a place somewhere else that is under a cloud.

Last week, two of our manufacturers, one a superintendent and one a maker of loom harnesses, came into Fall River on the same train, and at the depot separated, each going in a different direction. One of them, Mr. Osborn, was followed by a man who stepped up and wanted to know if he was a spinner. He says, "No; what if I was?" "If you was, you could not go up town;"—and he had to tell who he was, where he had been, and all about his business before he was allowed to go on.

Last Monday, at my suggestion, the State police came up to Bowenville depot, disguised as spinners, and went down to the Ferry Street depot. As they started to go up town, wearing old clothes and carrying carpet-bags, they were overhauled by a man who wanted to know who they were. On being told, the man was very much surprised that the squad below had allowed them to go by; said he didn't want them to go to work; asked where they came from, and when told "from Manchester," offered to pay their fares down and back if they would return, and was anxious they

should go and see their president. After they had walked round some two or three hours, and had got some signs and one thing and another, and had been into a place where they were given something to eat and drink, they came out and said they must go to the Durfee Mill, but would see them again before going to work. So well disguised were they, that our overseer hired them, not knowing who they were. The next night the same thing was repeated in a different way; then the thing was divulged. What ought to have been done was for them to have continued out until some threats were offered; then we might have seen what answer they would have made to that. The next morning it was all out in the Boston papers, and that threw the whole thing up.

I don't object to their organization, but do object to their saying who shall and who shall not work. We could get all the spinners we wanted but for their intimidation. For instance: we hired three spinners from Salem, who came down, were met at the depot by the superintendent and taken to the mill. The first question asked was what kind of protection they were going to have. They were told they would have ample protection, but were not satisfied and asked to see me. When I came up they repeated the question, and said they wanted to be safe. I said, "You shall have all the protection the city, State, or the United States can afford. If you don't want to live in tenements we have a nice hall up stairs; you can go up there and live, and have your food brought from the hotel, and live within our yard." Our yard covers eight or ten acres. They said, "No; they had never been shut up in a wall, and didn't want to be." Then I offered to board them at the hotel and carry them up and down; but they said they wanted to go down and see what the people said. I told them they would probably be threatened, and then would not come back again. They thought they should. One of them who had promised me he would come back if he went out of town, did so, and said he should not go to work. The others did not return. This man said, "I like everything inside well enough, but I don't like the outside. They threatened to knock my head off, and I don't want it knocked off if I can help it." Mr. Chase and I tried to persuade him to go to work, but he was thoroughly scared. At the depot the strikers had a jubilant time getting these spinners off.

I don't remember that we have ever had trouble with our mule-spinners before. The treasurer of the Linen Mill, however, says we have had four strikes inside of twelve years, each one originating with the spinners. Personally, I know of no trouble with

spinners before that lasted more than a day or two. The character of spinners compares favorably with that of our other help; some are good men and some spend all they get. This outbreak certainly does not come from the fact that they cannot live on the pay they get, because if that was so, there would not be so many wanting their places. The secretary of the association came here from Lowell or Lawrence under an assumed name,—poor, dirty, with no goods, and constantly trusteed. Now he lives quite well, has a good house, wears good clothes and is not trusteed. He is the mainspring of the association. There would be a disadvantage if reduction in pay brought us inferior help, but at the time of the cut down we were a long way above most of the mills in the country. Others cut down fifteen per cent.; we cut down seven and a half per cent. on the average. Any quantity of our help went out of town after the strike commenced, that are now ready and willing to come back. I think the question with the spinners was not on wages, but whether they or the manufacturers should rule. For the last six or eight years they have ruled Fall River. They say the manufacturers shall not employ boys and girls. When these come in, they take their hats and coats and leave. They will not have them in the mills, perhaps because they think it will result in displacing men and overstocking the market. Girls run the mules in Newburyport, Salem, Biddeford, Lewiston, and many of the Rhode Island mills. It seems to me it was with them a question of power, because they offered to work for four or five cents a day more than we are giving. This would amount to about \$20 a day for them all, and \$800 up to this time, while the loss in spinners' wages has thus far been about \$35,000. If they are striking for dollars and cents, they are certainly a long way out in their calculations. I think it will take them five years to get upon as good a footing as they had before.

Our mill has the producing capacity of 250,000 pieces a year. We have been idle since July 21st,—a period of seven weeks. The price of the manufactured article has advanced; that of the raw material has not materially changed.

The strike is an attempt on their part to control the running, or not running, of our mills through the wages demanded. They would go to work if we would make any compromise whatever. If we had accepted the one-third compromise, the weavers would have wanted their compromise, then all the other hands in the mill; by that time the spinners would have come round to demand their old price back. The strike has its root in the ignorance of the people. It is England right over again. Many of the older class cannot read

and write. It has not been customary in Fall River to discharge persons for taking part in labor movements; but from this hour, I shall not hire any one belonging to this spinners' association. I went into manufacturing with the intention of doing everything that was right, and mean to now; but I might as well throw my property away as to submit to their ruling, and I will never do it.

The reduction took place when it did, because we were not making money. We sold our goods, but did not get enough for them to pay for running, counting in the cost of material, the cost of manufacturing, repairs, interest, guarantee, and other expenses. Taking these into consideration, we were losing money. I stated these facts to the very man who wanted salmon for his dinner,—the man whom we are trying now to arrest for an assault upon one of the men that night,—a man to whom I loaned money only a few months before, that he might send for a brother or some member of his family.

This spinners' association claim that it had nothing to do with the violence; but it was all done by their people. One man was put on trial for attacking Sanderson, but was acquitted; though I have no doubt he was guilty. Sanderson testified that he had known the man by sight, but not by name, for two years; had seen him go in and out of the Mechanics' Mill occasionally. The man testified that he had worked at the Mechanics' eighteen months; but four of his companions said they stood around him against the side of the house all the time the trouble was going on, and that it was impossible for him to strike Sanderson without their seeing it done, which they did not. These men were officers of the spinners' association, and testified that all this time they were talking together about the correspondence of the society, and nothing else. The other party we tried to arrest, could not be found. One of the assaulted parties we haven't been able to get in, and it is reported that he has been bought up. We could never get him to say who it was.

One of our mills worked two or three days after the spinners went out. The Union Mill had a large amount of warp on hand, and attempted to buy filling to close it out; but it wouldn't work. The weavers (three-quarters of them women), struck because it was "boughten" filling,—that is, filling not spun at the mill where they were at work.

After the lock-out the streets were quiet until the assault upon Sanderson. But we are watched constantly. All the way up and down the street, at each end of our avenues, there is a sentinel or picket.

This testimony of Mr. Brayton was followed by that of Isaiah Sanderson, the spinner.

TESTIMONY OF ISAIAH SANDERSON.

I came to this country in 1865, from Scotland. Was a farmer there, and after coming here worked a couple of years farming in Connecticut. Have been spinning in Fall River for three years; all the time at the Durfee Mills. Have a wife and three children; but none of them work in the mill.

Am not a member of the spinners' association, but have had no trouble with them until now. They have asked me to join them, and the talk has been, "You ought to join it; you will be compelled to come on them for support some day when there is a strike," and the like of that. After the strike began I worked awhile quarrying on Baty's Ledge.

What I know about the strike is this: In the first place they took ten cents out of the dollar, and the spinners didn't want to stand it. They went to work and made a notice wanting to get it back, telling the masters if they didn't they would stop work. The owners went along and didn't give them any satisfaction. Then they went along and stopped work when the notice was out; and as they didn't get any satisfaction, they requested everybody to stop that was not in the union. The masters wanted me to work right straight along, but I was kind of scared I would get what I did get, and so didn't go to work. Finally, when the mill had stood for some time, the company kept coming for me up to the ledge to see if I wouldn't go to work for them. I said I had no objections to work if the thing was settled; and after they had come for me a great many times, went down. I told them it would kick up a disturbance if I went to work; but they said they guessed there wouldn't be any trouble. I guessed there would, and so the second night I worked in the mill there was a great crowd there. Two or three worked there by me, and the superintendent wanted us not to go out in the crowd. I told him we might just as well get what we had to take, first as last, and we had better go out. Going through the crowd the stones began to come; the rocks came just as hard as they could. Finally, a few steps further on I got kicked, and knocked down and beat; my eyes bunged up, my body kicked and my head and every bit of me. I got out of the crowd and went down to the police office, and they sent a constable home with me. Then they asked me if I would keep on working, and I said, "Yes, if they don't take my head off." I was bound to work. The next night it was just the same. The crowds were there, and

the stones were flying just the same ; but they had it fixed so there was a watchman to go along with us. But he couldn't see who was throwing the stones. They said they would have my life if I wouldn't stop work, and kept telling this all over the town. I said I had only once to die, and was prepared ; God was always stronger than Satan since I knew him, and I guess I will take my chance. The fourth night they sent for the State constable, and it was a little quieter, and has been ever since.

Q. Has any individual approached you with threats ?

A. I don't know that they have ; I don't know them.

Q. Has any one that you know ?

A. Yes, sir.

Q. Has any one that you don't know personally ?

A. Not personally ; only out of the crowd ; just thrown to me out of the crowd.

Q. Have you received any communication, letter, or note threatening you, or anything of that kind ?

A. No, sir. I live twenty minutes' walk from the mill, through the woods, and in a lonesome place. Have had no policeman or any one stop with me nights during the trouble, but have stopped alone. There are five or six houses round mine, one about two rods and one about twenty rods off. My neighbors work in the mills ; none of them are spinners. Their sentiments are very bad to me for going in. They don't associate with me in any way since I went in, and they try to hurt me and my character on that account.

Right in the crowd they gathered round me, I was abused awfully. Some four persons struck me ; I was getting out of the crowd when they came and followed me. The crowd was close to the gates, and when I came out I had to enter it. It didn't take two minutes to get where the crowd was ; it followed us up and gathered close round when I was beaten. I was first struck on the leg ; knocked down by a kick. I got pushed by a woman when I went out of the gate. These four persons that struck me were full-grown men. I didn't know their names ; they were strangers to me. One was hauled up for it ; but he got so many witnesses to clear him out of it he got clear.

Q. Why was that one man taken up ?

A. I pointed him out by sight to the watchman, and there was a boy that pointed him out that saw him strike me.

Q. Had you known him before ?

A. He wasn't one of my acquaintances ; I had seen him several times, but never took any particular notice of him.

Q. When you were knocked down, after you fell to the ground, did those four persons continue to attack you?

A. So this boy said; I don't know; I felt the blows keep coming.

Q. Were you thrown down with your face to the ground?

A. Yes, sir.

Q. How did you get your bruise in the eyes?

A. That was a kick; it was cut, but has healed up. I got several blows on the side of the face. Who gave them I am not able to give any account of.

Q. This man who was arrested,—how was he recognized?

A. In the first place by a boy, who came forward and told he knew one of them that was at me; and he gave his name to the watchman, and I gave a description of him to the watchman. I saw him strike me once after I got to my feet. He struck me with his hand; I am not certain which; and on the side of the face.

Q. Are you certain that was the man?

A. Yes sir; and that it was after I got to my feet, and after I had the kick in the eyes.

Q. Could you see with both eyes equally well, and could you identify the man under oath?

A. Yes, sir; I could identify him as striking me once after I got up. The boy testified that he struck me when I was down. He was a young boy and was bothered by the counsel; he kind of put him through. I don't know as I had seen the man for a month or more before the attack. Don't know as I ever had any words with him.

Q. Had you any ill-feeling with him?

A. No, sir.

Q. Do you know his name?

A. I did know it, but I forget it.

Q. Did you know it before the attack?

A. No, sir.

Q. How could you forget a name you never knew?

A. The boy told me his name, but I disremember it.

Before the strike my wages would come to a little over \$50 in the four weeks; in five weeks a little over \$60, about \$12.50 a week. When quarrying my pay was \$1.86 per day, or \$11.16 a week. When I came back to the mill they didn't specify what they would give. They said they would satisfy me; if I would do justice to them, they would do justice to me. Have not received any money yet or promise of money; nor do I know what pay I am working for. I went to work because they said they would do justice by

me. They knew I had nothing to do with the spinners' society, and they kept telling me when I had nothing to do, why didn't I go to work. Think there are about fifty spinners not members of the society; am told the number of members is about three hundred. I never attended but one of their meetings, and that was a ten-hour meeting; I said I wouldn't go again; I didn't like their ideas. It was just one man chopping another; one man speaking before another got through. It was a public meeting in their regular hall. The weavers were there as well as the spinners, and anybody that wanted to come. Nothing was said about strikes, except that they didn't do any good. They wanted their men to become citizens and vote. I am not a citizen, but intend to become one. I have no objections to ten hours, but I don't appreciate the movement and don't care anything about it; because my way of it is if I don't like a job to leave it and find another that suits me. That is the way I have always done. Have worked both ten and eleven hours. After six o'clock the time feels long; you feel that three-quarters of an hour more than any other in the day. In following the mules we walk all day at the ordinary pace. We calculate that spinners walk about thirty miles a day. I have never heard the spinners use threatening language toward the masters, further than to say they persecute the working people too much; and that they would keep up the strike until they should starve. I never heard any talk of mischief to the owners or their buildings, nor anything by which you could surmise they meant violence.

They attacked me because I went to work; I suppose they would have done the same if forty men had done as I did. Presume they discontinued the attacks because scared of the authorities. The crowd was composed of men, women and children, boys and everything. There were about as many men as women. I think the women were just as busy and violent as the men. All were as busy as they could be. I run two mules. There are eleven pairs running now, each pair has two men and two grown boys. Most of the new workers are Frenchmen, and have worked in other parts before. They got scared after the disturbance and stopped out. My getting beat scared them off, but they kept coming back every day. They blackguard me going home nights, and call me mean for working for \$1.25 a day, and the like of that. There were five or six hundred people in the crowd at the gates. I heard they came with the intention of drumming me and the other men that went in. I saw the engines play upon the crowd. Saw no troops, but did see a boy pass through the crowd with a musket in his hand. He was dressed in common clothes; should think he was between

18 and 21 years old. Don't think he was a soldier. The overseer of the mill passed the remark that it was a wonder they allowed him to carry it along through the crowd. He was not molested in any way. I could not see that any men in the mob were armed with pistols, knives, clubs, or anything of the kind. The watchmen took me home for several nights; but when I got there I was not afraid. I thought I could take care of myself in the house, if they should happen to break in. The man I rented of told me he had heard the remark that they would burn the house over my head; but I was not afraid; I had confidence in God, that he would not let the house be burned. I had a gun and a pistol. The gun was loaded. It had belonged to a night watchman at the Merchants' Mill. He was going on to the day watch and left the loaded gun at my house. The watchmen at the mills did not usually have arms; but suppose they were scared in these times. Mr. Brayton gave me the pistol—a revolver—with ammunition.

I was not in favor of this reduction in wages; but I couldn't say anything against the owners when they said they were paying more than any one else. I was not judge enough for it, except to work where I was satisfied. I told them a man could live cheaper in the country than in the city, and they said they would do justice by me* or any man that would do justice by them; but the idea of one man stopping work and carrying all the rest with him—they didn't like that. Don't know that the weavers sustain the spinners. The biggest part of the weavers are women any way, and there seems to be enough of them ready to go to work. They can't get work because there are not enough mules running to keep them at it. Don't know about the general feeling outside; I am a man that don't get acquainted with anybody much.

Under the ten hours I made \$42 or \$43 a month. Saved nothing during the 21 months; have saved nothing under the eleven hours work. I can't save anything and keep my family and pay my way. Suppose I lost last year about two months in attending to family matters. Some years I don't lose so much, and sometimes more, on account of sickness. Have no assistance from wife or children. My wife worked in a mill in Scotland before marriage; but I don't approve of keeping a woman in a mill and up with her children at night. I had rather live a little easier. I don't think a man can work in a mill, without assistance from his family, and save anything from his earnings, after living properly. He might by going

* Inquiry develops the fact that Mr. Brayton offered \$400 for a cottage and twenty rods of land for a present to Mr. Sanderson, but that the offer was declined by the owner, so that no purchase was made.

from place to place and leaving his bills unpaid; not by paying his way. I don't know as I live as well as the majority of the factory operatives. I generally pay \$6.50 for rent. Don't hire of the company, because when you leave work you have to leave the tenement. When I leave my job, I don't want my family turned out. I am a Protestant—a member of the Central (Congregational) Church, and used to attend pretty regularly. Think the difficulties in Fall River were caused by the Catholic operatives, and that the troubles will continue until they are driven from the city; if I could have my way I would give them no employment, and not permit them to purchase or hold a place for the burial of their dead. I express these views freely, but the Catholics don't agree with them very well.

I think the operatives are temperate and try to make everybody temperate. Think they work hard for that. At the time of the trouble they didn't seem to be in drink. There are no libraries or places for instruction or amusement in connection with the mills; but the mill-owners take an interest in the working class of people, by trying to induce them to go to church and meeting, and what not. The tenements built for the operatives are comfortable and good.

TESTIMONY OF ISAAC B. CHASE.

Am treasurer of the Tecumseh Mills. There was one strike before the present one, at a time when we were running ten hours a day. Think it was in March, 1868. It was for increase of pay, and was successful. At the time there was a general rise in wages in the manufacturing towns. We received a communication from our people, saying that they should cease work unless wages were increased a certain rate. The phraseology was: The weavers in your employ, etc., or, the spinners in your employ, etc., respectfully submit, etc. Though the mills were wholly stopped at the time, everything was quiet; there was no rioting or drunkenness.

We think we have in our mills the best class of operatives, as operatives. The earnings of our spinners are from ten to twenty per cent. higher than those of other places, I think; at any rate, they are as well skilled a class as can be found anywhere. We call them better skilled, because their product is greater than in other mills from which we have reports. We do not regard this as due to improved machinery only; better mills bring a better class of help, and so secure the best results.

Q. How about the recent strike?

A. I do not consider it a strike at all. It is just like this: You employ a man in your garden, or about your house. You have been giving him a certain price, and you say to him, "I cannot afford to give you this price after such a day, but I can give you so much." He replies, "I cannot afford to work at that price, and if you insist upon it, I must leave you." You do insist, and he leaves you, but that is no strike. He takes what is due him and goes away.

We offered our people a certain price for their labor. They replied that they could not work for us at that price, and that they should leave us after giving the usual and required notice. When the time was up they left the mills, and we made up the accounts and paid them. There were no questions asked. They did not ask for any increase of pay at all. They simply notified us that after such a date they could not work for us. Printed circulars reached us, asking a relinquishment of one-third of the reduction. They were without signatures. No interview was asked. If asked for, it would have been granted. But a committee seeking it must be a committee of our own spinners, acting on their own responsibility, and not representing other mills, or an association composed of representatives of spinners from all the mills. We were ready at any time to meet our own operatives, or a committee therefrom, but no one else, whether representing an association or not.

There was concert of action among the manufacturers as to the reduction of wages. We did not desire to reduce if it could be avoided, but when the price of goods went down, we began to ask ourselves why we should not reduce as other New England manufacturers had done, and settled into a sort of understanding as to the amount of reduction and the time when it should take place. [Q. But you would not hear from the concerted action of the employés, the spinners? A. That was the fact.] There is no organization among the manufacturers, but we interview each other on the streets and in the various offices.

I believe the manufacturers have had one meeting since the strike; but this meeting was in relation to the matter of starting our machinery; whether we should give notice to those spinners who were out, that they might come in again at a certain time, or whether, when we got ready to start, we should ignore them entirely, and hire other parties. But nothing came out of it.

We have had no trouble at our mill. It started last Monday morning with new hands altogether.

Q. The idea has been advanced that the old spinners would not

let anybody go to work; that they would prevent their working. Have you had any difficulty of that sort?

A. No, sir. Our experience there shows just the contrary, because most of the mills are in operation to some extent. There has been no difficulty excepting at Mr. Brayton's mill, unless it may have been at the outset. The Troy Mill, where Mr. Borden is agent, never did entirely stop, and for the first night or two there was some little hurraing there, but no other disturbance. They have kept on with their work. At the Davol Mill there was a large crowd one evening, but there was no disturbance.

Q. Was there any serious cause of alarm lest mischief should be done to the buildings or to persons by the strikers?

A. I think, that had the mills been started by any of the old hands, the regular operatives, we should have had cause of alarm. And I judge so, because of the trouble at the Durfee Mill. Don't know whether any of the stockholders since the strike have urged the employers to commence operations or not. The stockholders are mostly the managers of the mills, though all classes of the people are represented. In our own mill there are 350 shares owned by 100 persons, 40 shares being the largest amount held by any one person. This is only true of about three of the mills latest built, the older ones being owned by large shareholders, a dozen or so. We are employing about 200 hands, and make some 2,500 pieces a week, mostly print goods.

Q. Has the price of the raw material increased or decreased since the so-called strike?

A. There has been but little change, perhaps a variation of one or two cents.

Q. Has the price of your goods advanced?

A. It has; they are to-day worth $7\frac{7}{8}$ cents a yard. The stopping of the mills has advanced the price. That is the whole cause. It has thrown out of the market 55,000 pieces a week, being during these last six weeks 330,000 pieces. Take that amount out of market, and a scarcity will ensue.

Q. As a financial result, then, do you consider this stopping of work disastrous or beneficial to the manufacturers?

A. I think it has been beneficial, that is so far as money-making is concerned.

Q. When you were considering the reduction of wages, was the possibility of a strike discussed?

A. I think not. If it was, it was spoken of so lightly that I fixed nothing about it in my mind. Since they went out our men have not asked for any terms, nor have they proposed any on which

they would come in again. They are like any other class of men ; they have left the trade, left the business ; they have made no proposition nor asked us to consider any. Since they went out there has been no communication at all from them. Why, I do not know, nor have I heard that particular point accounted for. There is a sort of dead-lock. We (the employers) were not prepared. The time had not come for us to seek operatives elsewhere until within a few days, when we have concluded to try the experiment of starting mills. Our mill is open for their return, and they can have their machinery whenever they come back.

Q. They would not be refused employment on account of participating in this movement ?

A. Not by us (in our mill) ; they would be received like any other persons. The other operatives beside the spinners are ready to go to work, but the mules must supply the necessary yarn. The weavers would not be molested if they came to work. We started 200 looms this week and have applications for 400, but cannot supply the yarn. I know of none but would come in if we could give them work. The spinners would trouble only their own class. It is their own mates that they intimidate and no others.

Q. An article was published in the "Providence Journal" purporting to come from the manufacturers, stating that if the spinners of each mill would call upon their several treasurers or agents, they would be received courteously ; and the article suggested that perhaps from such interview something might grow by which employment might be resumed.

A. That is so. Some called upon me and read me the article. I told them it was right, that I was always ready to treat with them, but could not treat with parties with whom I had no interest or claim upon ; that, in reality, I had no claim upon them ; *they had left me on their own accord, working out their notice, leaving honorably and honestly, receiving their pay and going.* I said we were under no obligations to each other ; they none to us and we none to them. The question was asked whether we had any proposition to make. I told them none, but if they would come in and go to work, and the business warranted it, we would take into consideration any proposition they had to make,—they themselves as our spinners, and not as members of any association. We had nothing to do with anybody but our own help, and really no claim upon them. That was the nature of the conversation. They said they would consult their union, but could not say whether they would come in or not, nor could they make any proposition to us. They came to hear our proposition, and must go back to their com-

mittee to get instructions for anything further. I understood the same thing occurred to the other agents, but nothing came of it.

Q. Has any attempt been made by your clergy or others towards mediation?

A. I saw a statement that our grocers had appointed a committee to inquire where the wrong was and where the right.

After taking the before recorded testimony, we visited Fall River, where (September 15) we took the testimony of Hon. S. M. Brown, mayor of the city.

TESTIMONY OF MAYOR S. M. BROWN.

Q. Will you give us your account of the present difficulty in your city?

A. The movement here, or strike, if it is to be so called, took place in consequence of a reduction of wages. The first disturbance occurred some three weeks after the reduction, during which period of three weeks everything was quiet. The first I knew of any trouble was that Mr. D. A. Brayton, treasurer of the Durfee Mills, came into my office accompanied by a man somewhat hurt. Mr. Brayton stated that the man was a spinner in his employ, and that he was assaulted on coming out of the mill after work hours. I sent a police officer home with the man. I believe another man was assaulted on the same evening. Mr. Brayton thought that the government should protect his property and his help; I replied that the question was whether there was any real necessity for calling out an extra force, but at his request the board of aldermen met and voted to offer, and did offer a reward for the arrest of the assailants, and an extra force of 100 policemen was put on duty. I live half a mile from my office. The next evening I returned home, thinking everything safe and quiet, but soon heard an alarm bell for fire. It came from the Durfee Mill, to which a crowd had repaired at the alarm, such as always runs to a fire, consisting of men, women and children, mostly of these last two. Mr. Brayton had sounded the alarm, giving as a reason that the police had not cleared the street of the crowd already there. He was greatly excited. An engine had backed into the yard of his mill, and at the order of city marshal Andrew R. Wright, had filled up with water which the firemen discharged upon these men, women and children. He took this responsibility and the engineer and firemen acted under his order.

[The city marshal has no control over the fire department, but he was probably looked upon as the highest city official present.]

I was at the mill fifteen minutes after the bell rang. Saw no stones thrown, nor any violence. The crowd treated me with entire respect. As the workmen came out of the mill, one or two officers attended them home. The next day I called for the military. An order was written and delivered to Colonel T. J. Borden.* He thought it would be better to call also for the State police, and I telegraphed to Boston for a detachment. He also requested me to include the Taunton companies in the call for military, and I did so through him. When they arrived, they marched to the rear of the city hall where they were quartered. There were about 200 of them, including Fall River companies, but they were not called upon to act. They walked about the streets unarmed, remaining from Thursday evening to Saturday morning. Captain Wade of the State police and seventeen (17) men came down from Boston and remained here a week or two. There might have been violence but for this force, and again there might not have been any. Colonel Borden asked for instructions in case of actual riot, and I told him I should give no order to fire upon the people unless an actual necessity arose. The only use I could see of the troops was to assist in making arrests. There were no leaders in the crowd, and though there was an appearance as though there might be a riot, yet there was none. Mr. Chase asked to have the State police remain; and I told him he could consult with them, which he did and they remained. A stone from somebody in the crowd struck an officer as he was making an arrest, but the thrower was not discovered. Everything has remained quiet since.

TESTIMONY OF CITY MARSHAL ANDREW R. WRIGHT. (ON SAME DAY.)

About 5 $\frac{3}{4}$ o'clock, on Wednesday afternoon, Mr. D. A. Brayton came to my office and asked me to go to his mill. I did so, and found three or four hundred persons gathered there, three-quarters of them women and children, the latter from eight to fourteen years of age. Mr. Brayton asked me to clear the street and I did so. There was no resistance at all. We crowded them back into the adjoining streets. Mr. Brayton told me if I did not clear them away he would start the alarm bell for fire. He was greatly excited and I made him no answer. In about two minutes this bell rang, and the fire-engines soon came along—and a bigger crowd. The

* Commanding the Third Regiment Massachusetts Volunteers. We have not been able to get a copy of this order.

engineer in charge asked me what he should do. I told him to back his engine into the mill yard, fill up and play upon the crowd. This he did, and the crowd fell back from the water, and began shouting and hooting; but there was no violence, and no threats of violence, nothing but shouting and hooting, especially after the water was thrown. I could, with my own force, but for this alarm of fire, have quieted everything and preserved the peace, had matters been left in my own hands.

We then visited the several localities of the scenes of disturbance, the school for factory children, and two or three of the mills. In these mills but little work was going on, the operatives appearing to be mostly young persons and children. Everything about the town was perfectly quiet, though the strike was not ended. The general opinion of such citizens as we conversed with was decidedly to the purport that the ringing of the alarm-bell on a pretext of fire, by the treasurer of the Duffee Mills, thereby summoning increased numbers to a crowd about the mills, of which he already entertained fears, provoked additional excitement and led to further complications. We also visited the house of Mr. Sanderson, about three-fourths of a mile from town, more than half the distance being through a dense thicket of stunted trees and underbrush, where, if violence had been premeditated, it could easily have been accomplished without fear of detection. Mrs. Sanderson, disavowing all fears for her husband or their household, inquired of us whether we had come to present Mr. Sanderson with a house, and, on our replying in the negative, expressed a hope "that they would give him one."

Returning to Boston, we summoned, after a few days, three members of the State constabulary, who had been on duty at Fall River,—Capt. James P. Wade, commanding the force, and Messrs W. E. Hough and G. H. Morse. Their testimony follows:—

TESTIMONY OF JAMES P. WADE.

I am a detective attached to the State police force, and was put in command of the detail sent to Fall River on the afternoon of the 25th of August. A telegram had been received from Mayor Brown of Fall River, and I was ordered to take all the men I could get in the city and report to him as soon as possible. I took twenty-four

men and arrived there about seven o'clock. Many people were in the street, but there was no disturbance, and the mayor said none need be expected until the mills opened in the morning. A crowd of from five hundred to a thousand followed us to the city hall. We dispersed them at once, sending them to their homes. The force was disposed of in three reliefs, eight men being on duty at a time. When the mills opened in the morning all were on duty, but no disturbance occurred. At half-past six o'clock in the evening, crowds began to gather on the street where the Durfee Mills are situated. Before this, the city marshal had stationed on this street 100 special officers, and his force of about 30 men. I ordered my men to keep all persons who came into the street, moving, not letting them stand, halt or delay. As the street filled up, we would pass them out at the side streets. A few moments before the work-people came out of the mill, Mr. Brayton came to me and said one of the men, who would not join the strikers, had been assaulted several times, and he wished him escorted home by officers. I saw the man and told him to pass along through the crowd, mind his own business, look neither to the right or left, and he should be protected. I detailed four of my best men to follow Sanderson a little way in the rear, to keep him full in sight, and arrest any man who should make an assault or demonstration upon him. They were not to stay around him, but to keep him in sight. The officers did so, and reported that after going three or four streets from the mill, the man was greeted with hoots and howls, but no stones were thrown, and he was not assaulted in any manner. They followed him until they saw him enter his house. At seven o'clock the crowd in the streets was still; I judged they were there out of curiosity more than anything else; so after consulting the city marshal I withdrew my force, only leaving a few men in citizens' dress to watch proceedings. These men reported a little later, that the crowd had gone to their homes and the streets were very quiet.

Immediately before the mills rung out, and while the crowd was thickest, my attention was called, by one of the assistant marshals, to a block of buildings opposite or nearly opposite the mill, called the corporation block, and occupied by the employés of the mill; none of them working at the time, but all of them engaged in the strike. The windows to the balcony in front were crowded with men, women, boys and girls; and it was reported to me that all these parties had rocks or clods of earth concealed on their persons, ready to throw at the officers if there was a disturbance. My informant was well acquainted with the building and the rooms, and I went with him to the rear of the centre of the building, where

we gained admission. All were on the front of the building, and we saw no one until we came out on the balcony. The first two persons we met were women, sitting in one of the windows. We found stones in their laps, concealed under their aprons, and ordered them to shut down the windows and go into the house. This they did, the stones falling on the floor. In another tenement found quite a number provided with similar supplies. There were probably ten tenements in this block, and I should say the majority of them were supplied with this ammunition. There was a mixture of the sexes, but the majority were females. No resistance was made, and all my orders were promptly obeyed.

The next morning my force was in readiness at the opening of the mill, but there was no disturbance. The same was true at night. During the day I held my men in readiness at the hotel, as I did not want a crowd to be attracted by them. Two or three only were sent out as scouts in citizens' dress. Sunday it was very quiet. Monday Mr. Brayton informed me that the strikers were organized to prevent, by money and threats, any new employes from going to work. To satisfy myself of the truth concerning these statements I put out three scouting parties of two each, disguised as spinners. They went out on the railroad, and came into the city to represent themselves as having come from Manchester, and other places, in search of employment. They were met from time to time by the striking spinners, who asked them their business, and tried to dissuade them from going to work.

These spinner pickets did their duty first rate; not allowing any one to stay in town whom they could get to go out. Tuesday I reported in Boston, where I went to consult with Major Jones as to a reduction of the force. The Saturday before he had been down and brought ten men with him, making the number thirty-five in all. I thought a smaller number could perform the duty; that the force could be reduced one-third.

Q. In your opinion, was the State police necessary at all?

A. Decidedly, they were, for this reason: the local police were not respected and obeyed as were the State police. One of the latter was feared more than a dozen of the former.

After seeing Major Jones, I went back at his request, and consulted with the mayor. He thought the force had better be retained. Wednesday was very quiet. Thursday Major Jones came down again, and consulted with the mayor and myself. At this time, two military companies were under arms, one from Taunton and one from Fall River. The question came up, whether it was

necessary for the military to be there, and at my request they were sent home."

Q. Could you have got along without the military?

A. I think I could; but still, knowing these men were there, I could do my duty much better and more fearlessly. Without them should have had more trouble. I think the people were awed by the force.

My scouts never reported to me that they saw persons in the crowds with any sort of implements of violence—stones, clubs, or weapons of offence or defence.

Q. Yet, in your judgment, an average of twenty-five police, armed with billies and revolvers, required the force of four companies, armed with muskets and provided with ammunition, to assist in dispersing a crowd of unarmed operatives?

A. I should say all the force was necessary, judging from the feeling which was exhibited when I arrived there. It was a very critical time. All it wanted was a leader, to make things run riot. There were enough to urge and push forward, but no one to say, "Come on, boys." Had there been such a party, followers would have been found by the thousand. I felt it was important to have something to fall back upon. I expected every moment that the riot would commence. There was continual agitation, loud talking, and violent gestures. These people were certainly the worst class I ever got among.

My men were armed with revolvers, six-shooters, loaded, capable of discharging a hundred and fifty shots. The local police had billies; don't know as they had revolvers. Don't think the special police had a pistol about them. I didn't place much reliance upon the special police when it came to hard work. I did not know anything about the military until I was on my way to Fall River, but should have requested that they might have been sent for after getting there and looking the ground over, had it not already been done. These people were the worst class I ever got among.

Q. Did you make any arrests?

A. Only one.

Q. When was it, and why?

A. Sunday, August 28th, for drunkenness.

Q. A mobocrat?

A. No, sir; not a rioter.

Q. One of the operatives?

A. Yes, sir; a spinner.

Q. Were any arrests made by the local police?

A. Yes, sir; one arrest was made for an assault.

Saturday I returned to Boston, having turned the force over to Capt. Hough. The largest crowd, which I estimated at three thousand, was one-third women, and perhaps half young persons. There were few oldish men. I could see no appearance of leadership. It was a miscellaneous crowd, excited and angered. There was considerable profanity, but no demonstration to hurt anything.

TESTIMONY OF WILLIAM E. HOUGH.

Took charge of the State police after Capt. Wade returned. My line of duty was to keep scouts out who were to gather information, feel the temper of the crowd, and report back to me. Was on the ground when the mills opened and closed, and was in frequent communication with the mayor as to whether there was need of our staying longer. Stories were circulated that after the State police left there would be "fun," as the parties did not care for the local police.

Had been in Fall River from the commencement of the services of the force. Had visited the mills that were working, and was at the depot occasionally, where I saw the pickets trying to dissuade newly arrived parties from going to work. Operatives would be seen in groups of from three to a hundred about the streets. No one appealed to me directly for protection from violence. The spinners, as a class, seemed to be very quiet. Going alone through the streets where they lived, was never insulted. Found no one with other weapons than sticks. These were carried by young fellows, and were promptly given up when ordered. There were no traces of excitement by liquor except at 8 or 9 o'clock at night. No arrests were made. Many women and children were in the crowds. Heard of no place where weapons were concealed, and saw no revolvers, or indications of arming. There was no regular mob while we were there, only the elements out of which to get one up at short notice. There was considerable bad excited blood. Felt no alarm while there. Think we were competent to deal with the crowd alone, without the aid of the militia; that is, the State and local police; but it may have been politic to have the militia on hand. Even alone, there is no doubt that thirty State policemen could have dispersed and broken up the crowd; but it would have been brought about by harsh, quick measures. Under some circumstances would have dispersed them at once by charging and firing. In case there was danger of a crowd, should think the starting of a false fire alarm very bad policy. A private signal would be much preferable. The less publicity in such cases, the better. We left town after the muster, and when the city militia company had returned.

TESTIMONY OF G. H. MORSE.

I went to Fall River the same evening as Capt. Wade, though in a later train. After serving a week in uniform went on duty as a detective with three others. At Bowenville, (on line of railroad, about two miles from Fall River), we dressed up as spinners, in linen coats, soft felt hats, light colored pants and vests, and coarse shirts without bosom. Had previously got the necessary hints and information at the Durfee Mill from one of the overseers. Arriving in Fall River on the cars, we looked about and went to reading the hand bills. Soon some spinners approached us, and inquired if we were strangers, where we came from, etc. Told the men we were from Lewiston. After conversation about the strike we came out of the depot, and crossed over the street, where four other spinners joined us, and we all proceeded up the hill. They tried to persuade us not to go to work. Said the mules used were different from those we had been accustomed to, and that we would not understand them. I said I was accustomed to machinery and thought I could learn. By and by we came to a man sitting in the doorway reading a newspaper. When he saw us he dropped his paper, came out and wanted to know who we were. He was told, whereupon he said that if we went to work it would be at our peril. We asked him what he meant. He said that last week a man came near being killed, and that others might go the same way. He made use of vague general threatenings in the matter. I told him we had been pledged protection. He answered that the police and militia would not stay here long, not more than two weeks. I said by that time they would have hands enough to run their mills. He thought not. He was the chief spokesman, and told me that he was one of the spinners' committee. He wanted we should come down to their rooms, where they would show us the documents as to prices paid, and here the whole matter stood. The corporations were to blame. "We don't mean to say that you will be injured if you go to work, but it is hard telling what might happen in a crowd." I asked if it was spinners who hurt the man. They said no; that probably it was the weavers. Said I had heard there were six mule-spinners at work in the Durfee Mills. They were only boys, was the reply. I asked what the strike was for. They answered that they had to keep even with the corporations. If the corporations got ahead now they would keep so. On Main Street we met three other men and a woman. The latter put her hands on my shoulders and asked if we were going to work. We said we thought of it. The woman said if we went to work we ought to be hung, as we would be taking the bread out of the mouths of

poor people. I said we had mouths to fill too—we had families to support. Then we ought to have staid where we were, was the answer. This woman was more violent than any of the rest of the party. Then there was a good deal of talk, the general drift of which was, that if we went to work it would result in our injury. The mills would have to give in; for if necessary they would stay out a year. No one said anything about the Sanderson affair, except the member of the spinners' committee. When we got up to one of the streets near the Durfee Mill, I remarked that if things were as they represented—no one at work but boys, the feeling very strong, etc., I thought we would not go to work, but would go into the mill and see. They asked if we would not first go to the committee room. We said no, we would go to the mill first. The spinners had kept us company, one by our side and the rest behind, until we got to the fence at the Durfee Mill, where they made signs to some men at a grocery opposite, who crossed over and entered into conversation. They told us we had better not go in, but we drew off and went over to the mill office, where we staid some twenty minutes. When we went back from the office to the street, the fellows who came up to the mill with us, crossed over and asked us what we had decided. We said we had decided not to go to work. They invited us to come with them, and they would take care of us over night and then pay our fare back to Lewiston. We said it wasn't necessary, as we had money enough and would take care of ourselves—especially as they were having a hard time and needed all the money they had for themselves. They renewed their offers, but we still declined. Two of them followed us to the depot when we took the cars and went up to Bowenville, then we got into a carriage which was waiting, and returned to town, where we changed our clothes and reported to the captain. The spinners who followed me were part Irish and part American. The committee man, who spoke to us in a threatening manner, was about thirty-five years of age, active, energetic, sober, smart, a natural leader. My purpose as a detective was not to make out a special case against any one, but to see what was the object of the pickets, their temper, and how many of them there were. I was instructed not to disclose my real authority if it was possible to avoid it. Each man of the State police was armed. Think twenty-five armed men could dispose of such an unarmed crowd as there was there and scatter them.

We now append the substance of the statement of Col. T. J. Borden, of Fall River, in correspondence. Col. Borden com-

mands the Third Regiment of Massachusetts Volunteer Militia and is chief of the Fire Department. He is also treasurer and agent of the Troy Cotton and Woollen Mill, and president and agent of the Mechanics' Mills in the same city.

TESTIMONY OF COL. T. J. BORDEN.

The fire department acted under the orders of the city marshal, when the crowd was played upon. So far as the legal power of this officer to give orders in the matter is concerned, my understanding is this: He has no right or power to order the fire department to go to any particular place, but in this case, the fire alarm was struck by a private individual, and the department, not knowing that it had not been legitimately struck, obeyed its call, as it is under obligations to do. When it arrived at the point from which the alarm proceeded (Box 25, located in the Durfee Mill yard), it was found that the city marshal was there with a police force attempting to maintain order and prevent violence, which he stated he was unable to accomplish,* and requested the aid of the fire department, designating what they should do. He being the highest officer present specially charged with the maintenance of the peace, I suppose he had the right to require the assistance of any man or number of men who were within his reach in quelling disturbance, and the right to direct them.

As regards the military, a precept was served upon me as commander of the Third Regiment, by the mayor of the city, ordering such portion of my command as was located within the limits of Taunton and Fall River to report for duty at the armory, there to await his future orders. The troops were assembled as quietly as possible, and remained until relieved by the mayor's orders, the State Constabulary having been able to maintain order without the use of any military force. The troops did not parade in the streets, except the marching of the two Taunton companies by the most direct route from the railway station, without any music, not even the tap of the drum. The companies on duty were B and D of Fall River, and F and G of Taunton, the whole number being 175. The troops were regularly uniformed, armed and equipped, and provided with ball cartridges. Had the mayor deemed it necessary to fire on the crowd he would have given orders; without such orders there could be no firing, nor did he consider it proper to order the troops to the point where trouble was anticipated, until it became evident that the crowd were getting the upper

* See p. 68, where the city marshal testified to his ability to control the crowd.

hand of the police force, not considering the military a proper organization to use in preventing the assemblage of a crowd. The gatherings had occurred for two or three days, at the time of stopping the mills at evening, and were rapidly increasing in numbers and excitement, accompanied by a severe beating of some of the operatives. When the mayor found the matter was getting entirely beyond the control of the local police, he applied to the governor for a detachment of the State constabulary, but received a reply that none could be supplied, as they were on duty elsewhere and could not be recalled in time. Therefore, the only alternative for the mayor was to do the best he could with the local police, and when they were overpowered to use military force. In this way of treating the case, of course the crowd, after disposing of the first force used against them, and elated with that success, would not be dispersed without quite severe measures. After the military assembled, a detachment of twenty-four State constables reported to the mayor, unexpectedly to him. This very efficient body of men was then available for use in the first gathering of the crowd, and were sufficient to control it, and prevent its increase to anything like the extent it would have assumed without such a check. I think the difficulties commenced on Monday, and ended on Friday night.

The precept served on me by the mayor was in writing, and was substantially the same as the form given in the statutes. It is quite possible that some parties concerned in the disturbances were not laborers in the general acceptation of the term. As an employer I am not aware that any written agreement has been signed by the operatives recently employed, as a general rule. In some instances it has been done, and as a private matter between the parties to the agreement.

Here follows the testimony of William Isherwood, one of the committee of the spinners' association, and that of Allen Lockwood, a weaver at Fall River.

TESTIMONY OF WILLIAM ISHERWOOD.

Have been an operative in Fall River in the neighborhood of six years. As to this strike, the first notice of reduction was given the operatives June 29th. We called our meeting on the 30th. The way they did in our mill, each person was called singly into the entry, when the overseer read from a sheet of paper as follows: "On and after July 5th, you will receive pay as follows"—(naming

the reduction). That was all he said. At our meeting on the 30th a memorial was prepared, which read as follows:—

SIR,—We, the spinners in your employ, do most respectfully desire that you will take into consideration our present rates of wage, together with the high rents and other necessities of life, and the reduction you have now offered to us, which will make it almost impossible for us to support ourselves and families. Again, sir, we think the merits of the mule spinner are not properly understood. Take, for instance, the length of time he has to devote to acquire a practical knowledge of his trade, and the small pay he receives during all those long years of weary toil. Take any other trade outside the mill, and see if they have devoted the same number of years to acquire it as we have, and whether we are on a par with them in any respect. Or take any other branch of industry in the mill, and see if they commence on the same pay or devote the same number of years as we do. Then, sir, you must admit that we have some grounds for complaint. Then, in conclusion, we hope that you will take into consideration your offered reduction, as we think it unjust and unreasonable, and as such we cannot quietly submit to it. The bearer of this requires an immediate answer.

THE SPINNERS IN YOUR EMPLOY. [Seal.]

SPINNERS' ASSOCIATION ROOM, }
FALL RIVER, June 30, 1870. }

We forwarded these to our employers and had interviews with them. They could assign no reason for the reduction, except that other places had done it, and they had been thinking of doing it also. They said they could not and would not make any terms whatever. We then got out a second memorial, as follows:—

SIR,—We, the spinners in your employ, having considered your answer to our memorial, stating that you can do nothing for us this time, we as a body are unanimous that the state of the markets does not warrant so great a reduction as now offered to us.

We believe that the question in dispute can be more amicably settled if you will condescend to appoint five of your number to meet an equal number of spinners, and discuss the question pro and con., and if you can prove to us that there is a just cause for the reduction, we are willing to submit to it.

At a general meeting of the spinners of this city, held in Bay State Hall on the 2d of July, 1870, it was unanimously resolved that we ask you to give us one-third of the reduction back, or take this memorial as our two weeks' notice [of leaving].

The bearers of this memorial will receive any communication emanating from you on the question. Respectfully yours,

THE SPINNERS IN YOUR EMPLOY. [Seal.]

SPINNERS' ASSOCIATION ROOM, }
FALL RIVER, July 7, 1870. }

In the meantime we appointed two men to go around in various

manufacturing localities, and get a list of prices, as our employers said they were paying more than others paid elsewhere. This is their report:—

The following is a correct list of prices paid for spinning yarn from No 35 to No. 38 in the various places in New England:

Filling, 35s.—Price paid, to spinners, for spinning 100 pounds of yarn in Fall River, \$1.38 1-2.

Back-boy, in Fall River, receives \$1.75 per week.

Filling, 36s.—Price paid, to spinners, for spinning 100 pounds of yarn in Lawrence, \$1.60.

Back-boy, in Lawrence, receives \$3.00 per week.

Filling, 38s.—Price paid, to spinners, for spinning 100 pounds of yarn in Lowell, \$1.80.

Back-boy, in Lowell, receives \$3.00 per week.

Filling, 36s.—Price paid, to spinners, for spinning 100 pounds of yarn in Manchester, N. H., \$1.95.

Back-boy, in Manchester, receives \$3.00 per week.

Filling, 35s.—Price paid, to spinners, for spinning 100 pounds of yarn in Sprague's Mills, R. I., \$1.44.

Back-boy, at Sprague's, receives \$2.50 per week.

Average rents at Sprague's Firms, R. I., \$35.00 per year, with better accommodation than at Fall River at \$96.

Our second memorial was treated with silent contempt. On the evening of July 21st we peaceably quit work. The weavers and others kept on working as long as there was any yarn, and then all the mills shut down, with the exception of the Davol and part of the Troy. Finally, Mr. Brayton of the Durfee Mill opened his gates and got in two men and what small help he could, and commenced running. It got noised abroad that certain parties were in, and the small help of the mill would assemble at the gates, and when these came out would halloo and hurrah. The first night this man (Sanderson) kept shaking his head and threatening the children. From my house opposite could see him in the door shaking his head. I am told that he remarked he would break their d—d necks, and the like of that. The boys who heard him so reported, and the next day this story was generally circulated. The next evening there was a still larger concourse of children, who hallooed and hurrahed as before, when Mr. Sanderson and Mr. Lowny, the two men at work in the Durfee Mill, came out. The children were crowding behind, when some one threw a small rock, about the size of a marble, which passed near Sanderson. Next to Sanderson, walking on the curbstone, his mother beside him, was a boy fourteen or fifteen years old. As soon as the stone passed him,

Sanderson turned round and struck the boy over the ear and knocked him down. As soon as the boy was struck, the mother rushed at Sanderson and made a motion as though she was going to hit him with a dinner-pail. The crowd at once rushed in, and that was all the disturbance I saw. Mr. Brayton had issued a reward of \$100. That drew a considerable number to the place. The night after the riot, so called, about three minutes before bell time, there being a concourse of people moving about the streets, mostly boys and girls, an alarm of fire came from the alarm-box at the Durfee Mill. After that there was a rush into the street from all quarters. The engines came up, the gates were opened, and when they got the hose out and the steam up, they commenced playing on the crowd. The next day another reward was offered of \$200, signed by the mayor. Then he called for a hundred special constables, and called out the troops and State police. We could never find out the reason for sending for these men, as there was no disturbance. There were no crowds in the streets, and every one went about his own business.

Every evening, when the mills would shut down, constables and policemen would be on the street, one every few yards. Strangers, people coming from work and others, could not stop a moment without being told to go along. This only occurred about the Durfee Mill, between Ninth and Twelfth Streets. The special police had sticks and wore badges. The State police were armed and had bludgeons. I heard no spinners threaten violence to person or property. Never heard the subject of violence brought up before our meetings. Men were picked out to watch the depots and wharves, and see if spinners came from other places. I know a great many of them. Have been to the depot myself on my own account, and not as a picket. Did not meet there any persons coming for work. Never knew personally, or heard of pickets threatening such persons. Have known their fares back again to be paid.

We sent out posters over the city and to places from which spinners would be likely to come, urging them not to do so while the strike was pending. The word "Caution" was put on the top to attract attention. Circulars containing the same thing were printed and handed to men coming into town whom we thought were spinners. The pickets were only instructed to inquire if they were spinners and hand them these circulars, and let them please themselves. We also posted the city, calling upon every spinner to walk quiet and peaceful. There were all kinds of rumors. Rumors were so fluent we didn't take any notice of them. Heard no

insulting language. Men have come to work who, after seeing us, would say they had been deceived; that agents had represented there was no trouble, that it was all settled, and that they would receive \$2.25 per day. The agents had paid their fare; they had no money, and so we paid their fare back to get them away. There were very few operatives on the special police, and no spinners. There were some spinners in the home military companies. The largest block opposite the Durfee Mill is Gaffield's, and has six tenements. It has no balcony in front; has only a plain wall. Know of no block near there with balconies where you can step out of the windows. Know of no stones having been thrown from tenement houses near the mill. Stones went through the window of the tenement next to me; they came from outside.

When the water was thrown on the crowd there was a gentleman there from Boston, a man who was in the dry-goods business—a perfect gentleman and a “prohibitionist”—and he was going along, minding his own business and dressed up in his best clothes. They put water on him, and he dodged it as well as he could. But they turned it on him a second time, and when he was going towards the mill door to know the meaning of it, it was put on him again and he was almost drowned.

The man that was arrested for assaulting Sanderson had no more to do with it than I am having at this moment. I was talking with him all the time the crowd was there, and he could not move without my seeing him. When he heard the warrant was out, he went down and gave himself up. The case was postponed awhile at Mr. Brayton's request, in order to secure more evidence, but he was acquitted. The night after there was a great crowd. I don't know what brought it together, unless because they supposed more water would be thrown. The children took it as fun. I don't think they were anticipating any more attacks on Sanderson. It was curiosity. The spinners' association discountenanced all violence. I could take oath that there was never an intention of the sort. Should have known it if so, as I attended all the meetings. The only point they tried to make on us was on the man arrested, and on that they failed entirely.

I have been known by two different names. I had to assume a second name in order to get work. When advocating ten hours in Lowell, in 1867, I was discharged, and my name was sent round so I could not get employment. As soon as my name was spoken at various places they would say, “We don't want you.”

After the present strike I made application at the counting-room for work again. “Work,” says the agent, “you have no work; you

left it. You worked your notice and left." "Well," I says, "I came to see if there was anything for me." He commenced to laugh, and, sitting down, went to talking. The conversation lasted about an hour and a quarter. He said he was entirely full; and I asked if he would be kind enough to give me an honorable discharge, so that I could go somewhere else. After saying he shouldn't object to giving me one, he asked me what good it would do; indeed, he said it would do me no good. "That is strange," said I. "Well," said he, "it is just so." I told him I didn't know I had done anything amiss; had taken no part in the strike until brought on the street; had never opened my mouth one way or another on the reduction; and didn't know why I should be served in that way. "Well," he says, "you have taken a great interest lately in labor agitation." I told him I should never go back on anything I had said or done, nor blame any one but myself. Then he told me of various stories he had heard of me from men that had gone back to work. I asked if he would send for the men right before my face. "No," he says, "we don't do business in that way." I asked him if he thought it was fair to accuse a man and not give him a chance to prove himself, to which he made this answer: "You haven't spoke a word there in those meetings but what I have heard of it." After something more was said about being face to face with my accusers, I says, "Then there is no work at all for me." "None," says he; "for if you were to go to work you would have to sign a paper not to belong to any more spinners' associations, and not to say anything around the mill either; but to start when the mill starts, and run as long as it runs." "Well," I says, "if there is no work I will bid you good morning," and so came away. Since then the superintendent called to notify me out of the tenement, and I had some conversation with him, asking him why they took this advantage of me, why I could have nothing to say, and had become a mere cipher. He says, "You must remember you have had your name in the papers too often the last sixteen or eighteen months." I reminded him that the clerk, the agent, and himself had told me they were ten-hour men, and that they hoped it would become a law; that the employers had encouraged me to go out on missions for it by letting me off: "Why was I to be blamed for going as far as I did after being thus encouraged?" "Well," he says, "I can't help it," and I left him, telling him I would get out of his rent as quick as I could. When the other spinners went to work or made application for it, the superintendents came out boldly, referred to me, asked if they were connected with me, and said, "He can never work in Fall River again

while Fall River is Fall River." I applied also in Lowell and several other places. All would say they didn't want any more help; but I have reason to believe they knew me. They would turn round on the street and look after me when I was walking along. There is a rumor that photographs were taken of four or five of us as we were standing on the street, and that these photographs were sent round. Am now in other employment, doing as well as I can.

TESTIMONY OF ALLEN LOCKWOOD.

In regard to the pickets, not only was no violence offered, but, when two of them had a little trouble between themselves, the aggressor was not allowed to go on duty the next day. The story of the police dressed up as spinners may have been true. In regard to stone-throwing from the windows, I never heard of it; nor of operatives on the balconies of houses being supplied with missiles. Know of no house near there with balconies.

I have seen the pickets, morning after morning, leave the rooms for the depot. The chairman always counselled them to use violence to no one, but to be respectful and sober; and it was carried out in every instance. They were exhorted to keep the peace, and to render the police all the assistance possible. They saw no necessity of the special police, and so did not offer to go on it.

At the time Sanderson was assaulted, very few (I don't believe twelve persons) of us knew he was working in the mill at all. I don't see how there could have been any threatening under these circumstances.

On the Saturday before the mills generally started up, the overseer of my room waited on me, and requested me to go to work. Said I, "Under the present circumstances I can't think of it. I have no notion of going to work at this time; it will be time enough on Monday morning. If I think favorably of it then, I will come; if not, I will stay here." Monday I hired with a person in New Jersey, and went on, but came back, arriving on Friday morning. I live in a company tenement, and was at once ordered to quit it. I started at once to look one up, and also to look up work. Our mill was to start on the Monday following, the strike having then substantially ended. I saw the overseer, and he told me to come and he would give me work. Going home I thought of a little work I had left, and went back to see if the overseer had kept an account of it. He had not done so. As I was coming back by the mill, met the agent and superintendent at the gate. The superintendent says, "When are you going to get out of that tenement?"

"As soon as I can get a respectable one; I am looking every day." The agent then said, "All nonsense; you could get a tenement if you were to look for one." I told him I had looked, and would thank him if he could recommend me to a good one. The agent turned away and left me with the superintendent, who said, "You, and the old woman that lives in the corner house, are the only two that refused to go to work for twenty-seven cents." "Who told you so?" "I don't suppose I am bound to tell." "Please yourself; it is wrong, whoever told you." "Well, we want you to get out of that tenement, so we can put some other help in." "All right; I have been down to get work; is there any chance here?" "I guess we don't want you to work for us. You were secretary of the ten-hour convention of this meeting here. Why don't you go down to General Oliver, and get to be secretary for him?" Thereupon I left, and called on the overseer of the room where I worked. I went to be satisfied, more than anything else. I said, "Can I go to work?" "No." "Have you any orders not to hire me?" "Well, I had a sort of intimation not to do it; I could understand it." "Why do you want to send me away from here?" "You know very well why it is." "Well, sending me away will not prevent my agitating the ten-hour matter. Why didn't they send me away when I was in Boston, during the last session of the legislature?" He said he had a kind of hint of it then, but was pleased to take no notice of it.

I went to work in one mill, staid as long as I thought proper, and then went to another one where I could do better. I signed no paper. Don't know of any signing a paper not to belong to the association. I was not a spinner, but was privileged to attend all their meetings. The spinners as a body, and the pickets, were always cautioned against violence, and this was not put on, but really meant. I attribute the violence in the first place to the reward of \$100 posted about the city in the name of D. A. Brayton, calling for the detection and conviction of any person committing violence upon an employé of the Durfee Mill Company. In the proclamation, Mr. B. claimed that his help had been threatened with violence. Before that time I did not even know that the mill was in operation. I do not believe that there had been either threats or acts of violence up to that time, and am fully satisfied, as are thousands of others, that but for the appearance of that unfortunate document no disturbance whatever would have occurred. The posters caused a crowd to assemble. Before that the common remark was, "Where are the people that are on a strike?" We feel that it was a move to get the strikers to commit some breach

of the peace, and are confident that in this they failed, since the strikers had nothing to do with the troubles that took place.

That evening, August 23d, a large crowd assembled in front of the Durfee Mill, and, when the help came out of it, the crowd cheered and hooted, and followed them up the street. Sanderson, not liking this, turned sharp round and struck a boy on the side of the head, knocking him to the ground; whereupon a woman who was with the boy rushed on Sanderson and struck him, the crowd at the same time closing on them both. Quite a number of the crowd were thrown to the ground, and in the melee Sanderson received some bruises, one over his eye being quite severe. The crowd was largely made up of boys from twelve to eighteen years of age, and I don't believe there was a striking spinner in it. The one accused person was found, on trial, to be entirely innocent; and the persons who did commit the assault, I am confident, are unknown to others than the parties themselves.

Wednesday evening, August 24, a still larger crowd assembled, and the city marshal with twenty men was summoned, and shortly after an alarm of fire was sounded, bringing the fire department on to the ground, and driving the crowd back after many of them had received a drenching. The help as they came out were escorted home. Officer Hill arrested a person for insulting one of the working spinners, and officer Surgens going to his assistance, some stones were thrown, and one of them hit Surgens in the head and cut him severely, though he was on his beat the following morning.

Thursday evening, two carpenters named Lisco and Crowther, on their way home from work, concluded to step around by way of the Durfee Mill and see what was going on. Stopping in the street, nearly opposite the mill, they were ordered to move along. They did so, but resented the matter somewhat, and argued their right to be on the public streets. An officer at last, not being satisfied with their promptness of obedience, started to arrest one of them, who resisted somewhat and was arrested and fined. A boy was also arrested for hallooing, and a woman for throwing a stone at an officer who was escorting a spinner home.

I maintain that there is and can be found no evidence of a striking spinner committing or counselling violence. There was no need of the State police or military, and the people of Fall River generally think so. The action of the authorities in calling them out is regarded as untimely and injudicious. The board of aldermen recently passed a resolution authorizing the city solicitor to sue D. A. Brayton for the false alarm of fire, August 24th.

But one complaint was made of the conduct of a picket, and that

was explained satisfactorily. Many came in and went to work, and there were spinners working in other mills all the time; neither class were troubled. There were men that came to town, received money from the association with which to return home, who came back bringing others with them, and were allowed to work unmolested. The strikers neither intended nor offered violence to any party whatever. Every one was allowed to work when he liked, for whom he liked, and on such terms as he liked, so far as the strikers were concerned; and the whole trouble, in my opinion, was due to the authorities and to the agent of the Durfee Mills.

REWARDS, PROCLAMATIONS, ETC.

The following notices were posted about the city during the strike, including one from the spinners, a copy of which has not been preserved, but which counselled order and forbearance.

ONE HUNDRED DOLLARS REWARD.

Whereas, persons in the employ of the Durfee Mill while on their way to and from the mill have been threatened with violence, a reward of one hundred dollars is hereby offered for the detection and conviction of any person who may be guilty of such an assault.

D. A. BRAYTON, *Treasurer.*

FALL RIVER, August 23, 1870.

TWO HUNDRED DOLLARS REWARD.

In accordance with a Vote of the Board of Aldermen, One Hundred Dollars reward will be paid for evidence that will lead to the arrest and conviction of the parties who assaulted Isaiah Sanderson, while going from his work at the Durfee Mills on the evening of the 23d inst. And One Hundred Dollars will also be paid for evidence that will lead to the conviction of the person or persons who assaulted Cornelius Lowmy, on the same evening while going from the said mill.

SAMUEL M. BROWN, *Mayor.*

FALL RIVER, August 24, 1870.

NOTICE.

In consequence of the acts of violence lately committed on our streets, the appointment of an extra police force has been authorized; and notice is hereby given that our citizens will be fully protected in all lawful pursuits, and all necessary force will be used to prevent acts of violence, and to arrest and bring to justice guilty parties.

SAMUEL M. BROWN, *Mayor.*

FALL RIVER, August 24, 1870.

PROCLAMATION.

Whereas, it is made to appear to me, Samuel M. Brown, Mayor of the city of Fall River, that there is threatened a disturbance of the peace of the city

by the assembling together of large numbers of persons on the public streets, and that violence and bloodshed may be the result thereof:

Now, therefore, I hereby advise and request all good citizens, who are in favor of preserving the public peace, to abstain from mingling in any such assemblage, unless called upon to aid the public authorities. And I implore all citizens to remember that no good cause can be promoted by acts of violence.

SAMUEL M. BROWN, *Mayor*.

FALL RIVER, August 25, 1870.

A C A R D .

Whereas the impression has gone abroad that the laboring class of Fall River are a class breaking the law to that extent that has called for the aid of the State, and I being a believer in Law and Order, if it takes every man from Maine to Alaska (although I do not believe that the demonstration is necessary), I do hereby pledge all of my property to the extent of \$2,000, and will give power of attorney to the city of Fall River to-morrow morning, that I will conduct the spinners now working in the Durfee Mill to their respective homes, to-morrow evening, without harm, and that the said power has a right to draw on said property, to the last dollar, for all injury that they may receive, and that I am willing to go before the Court and plead guilty of all assaults that are committed on them whilst in my care.

(Signed)

D. G. HARRIMAN,

No. 59 Pleasant Street.

FALL RIVER, August 26, 1870.

COST OF THE STRIKE TO THE CITY AND STATE.

Official inquiries as to the money-cost of the force on duty in Fall River during the excitement, have elicited the following facts:—

Expense of State Constabulary,	\$1,017 00
of Militia,	1,624 00
of Extra City Police,	428 85
of Quartering Police and Troops,	231 66
of Railroad and Carriage,	13 19
					<hr/>
Total expense,	\$4,174 70
Amount paid by State,	\$2,641 00
paid by City,	1,533 70

EFFECTS OF THE STRIKE AND CUT DOWN UPON THE MANUFACTURERS.

A gentleman who has investigated the matter gives the following figures, the standard of prices for cloth and raw material being that of the Providence market:—

Average price of cotton July 20, 1870, $20\frac{1}{2}$ cents; price February 10, 1871, 15 cents per pound. Average fall in price between the two dates $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents at least. Amount consumed between September 22 and February 10, 9,252,307 pounds, and this multiplied by the sum represented by the average fall, gives a saving in cost of raw material during the time, of \$323,830.75.

Print cloths, 64×64 , sold July 20, at $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents; February 10, at 7 cents per yard. Up to this time $7\frac{1}{2}$, $7\frac{3}{4}$ and 8 cents had been paid. At least one mill has contracted for its cloth up to April, 1871, for $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents per yard. It is fair to say that the average rise in the price of goods during the 29 weeks was one cent per yard over the price received previous to the strike. On that basis the gain upon the amount produced since the strike gives \$510,326.92.

In the matter of wages the spinners were reduced $7\frac{1}{2}$ the weavers 10, and the other help 10 per cent., giving an average of 9 per cent. on the whole. About 7,200 persons are employed in the Fall River mills, and allowing that of these, 200 (such as agents, overseers, etc.), suffered no reduction, 7,000 would remain to whom the cut down would apply. Their average pay is about a dollar a day, and the reduction would amount, on the basis of 9 per cent., to \$630 a day, or to \$75,600 in 20 weeks of six days.

Under the three items of raw material, cloth and wage savings, the result stands thus:—

Saving on Cotton,	\$323,830	44
Gain on Cloth,	510,326	92
Savings on Wages,	75,600	00
								<hr/>
Total,	\$909,757	66

With a gain of nearly \$1,000,000 in so short a time it is not a matter of surprise that new mills are now building or about to be built.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The local papers record the fact that the manufacturers were so driven by orders or some other necessity, that they did not even stop their mills for a Christmas holiday.

The number of spinners that contended against the reduction was 430, and the whole number of operatives thrown out of employment was about 7,000. Five spinners were prevented from working in the mills again, and several others who be-

lieved they would be prevented left the place before the termination of the strike. Thursday, September 15, quite a number of spinners returned to work, and on Monday, the 19th, all the mills were in full operation, but one, and that was prevented by other reasons.

REVIEW OF FALL RIVER STRIKE.

The classes whose relations to this strike were more or less directly alluded to in the evidence already given are, first, the employers; second, the organized employés; third, the unorganized employés; fourth, the obnoxious or non-striking employés; fifth, the miscellaneous crowds; sixth, the civil and military authorities; and seventh, the disinterested people of the city. The bearing of the testimony on each of these classes is as follows:—

I. The employers were a unit in taking such action as made a cessation of work possible and probable. They agreed together to cut down wages, and decided beforehand upon all the minutiae connected with the change. It appears that meetings of the manufacturers' combination were somewhat informal. The reasons given for the reduction were two: the example of other manufacturers, and the conclusion that as much money was not being made in the business as they contemplated. It was also hinted by Mr. Brayton, that the manufacturers were "determined to throw off the control of their business by organized employés, they having been ruled by them for five or six years." The reduction was announced in the mills as to take place on a certain day, but no explanations were given, it being considered enough of a warning that reductions had been made elsewhere. To the circulars of the spinners protesting, and urging compromise or arbitration, no answer was given, though they accepted that portion which gave notice of leaving work.

Individual employers were interviewed by delegates from the spinners' union, but the stand already taken was pronounced irrevocable. Some of these interviews were characterized by bitterness of feeling. There appears no evidence, during the strike or at its commencement, that a general conference, where both parties would be fairly represented, and the whole subject at issue considered in a kindly spirit, would have been agreeable,

or even endurable, to the manufacturers. An interval follows the cessation of work, in which the situation is accepted and the running of the mills is not attempted. The state of the market continuing to improve, the manufacturers desire to employ help, but do not withdraw any part of the reduction previously ordered, when the business was in a less satisfactory state. An effort is made to secure outside help, but the employés interfere with this plan to some extent, through such appliances as are at hand. Gradually the old employés grow restive under the necessities of the case, and advantage is taken by opening the mills to such spinners as apply, the labor of the spinners being necessary to the employment of the others. The first help secured comes from non-union or anti-union men, and the first mill to attempt to resume work is the Durfee Mill. The feeling developed by the employment of Sanderson causes Mr. Brayton, its treasurer, to issue a placard in which a liberal money reward is offered any one detecting another person in attacking or injuring his work-people, while coming to or returning from work. Mr. Brayton's testimony throws no satisfactory light upon the necessity for the issue of such a placard. It is significant that violence did not precede, but followed its issue. He further pushes the matter by a vigorous pressure upon the city government for a display of force, accompanying the same by intimation that, if not granted, an appeal will be taken to the governor of the Commonwealth. The civil authorities concede all that is asked, and the following evening the excitement is increased by giving a fire alarm (no fire existing), thus attracting people to the mill, and then using the fire-engines to play water upon the crowd, the local police and city marshal being on hand, and both able and willing to keep the peace, as is testified. Mr. Brayton is described as having been on this occasion somewhat excited, and to have been dissatisfied with the civil authorities and the non-effectiveness of the measures used in dispersing the crowd. He is encouraged, however, by the thought that "matters are coming to a head." Subsequently, the special police, four companies of the State militia, under command of Col. T. J. Borden (who is also chief engineer of the fire department), and the State constabulary, appear at the summons of the mayor. No further violence occurs, and Mr. Brayton provides for the protection of Sander-

son and endeavors to find grounds for criminal suits against the spinners.

Objection is made by the employers against the circulars of the spinners, because emanating from an association, and it is intimated that after starting, concessions might have been made to such workmen as came to make individual propositions, for self or fellows of the same mill. But the testimony shows that the present method was not new, since on a previous and similar demand for an increase of wages, the claim was granted, almost at once. The strike gradually coming to an end, through the superior resources of the employers, the prominent leaders of resistance are deprived of work and tenements, and measures are taken against others, upon the plea that they have been engaged in ten-hour agitations, or "have had their names in the papers too often." The figures given, showing the gain to employers by favorable changes in the market, seem to indicate that both before the mills resumed and since, the old wages could have been paid without special detriment, and the employers say they have made money by the strike.

II. The only organized employés were the spinners. About one in eighteen of the whole number of operatives was connected with this branch. How many belonged to the union or association is not stated; and while the employers originated the strike by reduction of wages, the spinners took the initiative in resistance by ceasing to work. They continued to maintain the attitude of opposition or protest, so long as their circumstances permitted. Their communication with the employers, before the cessation of work, was both oral and written. Their circulars were respectful in tone, and the suspension from work took place under circumstances of freedom from anything like bluster, and was backed by the moral sympathy of the rest of the operatives. It is worthy of notice that the percentage of reduction proposed for the spinners is considerably less than that demanded of the rest. The first efforts of these men were directed towards finding out what was paid in the manufacturing centres in the same branch of business, and also to put men of the trade elsewhere, on their guard against coming to Fall River. When effort is made by the manufacturers to secure outside help, pickets are thrown out to watch the approaches to the city and the mills, with instructions to dissuade persons coming to work.

It is this line of conduct which the employers consider most objectionable. To the employé's it seemed a measure of ordinary prudence and self-preservation. Whether this work was carried out in a manner wholly free from objection or not, is a matter about which the evidence is conflicting. Mr. Brayton charges intimidation, and gives certain details to prove it, while Mr. Chase holds quite a different opinion. That rude and threatening language may have been used by individuals is quite probable. The instructions to these pickets, however, counselled freedom from anything of the kind, and there is little to prove that their conduct was at variance with them. In some cases, money was used to defray the return expenses of parties from abroad. Mr. Brayton, while making charges against prominent spinners, gives the class in general a good name. The worst that Mr. Chase charges them with, is, that they would be likely to make it uncomfortable for one of their own number who betrayed any implied or expressed obligations to stand firm.

Mr. Sanderson gives his experience with the spinners prior to the strike, and shows that no unfair pressure was brought to bear upon him to join the association.

The charge that one of them was engaged in the assault on Sanderson, was taken into the courts, with able counsel, and fully disproved. No appeals were made to local or State police for protection against the spinners as a body, and they themselves proclaimed, publicly and privately, their desire for good order. The evidence shows that a number of the spinners were refused employment and tenements, for participation in the strike.

III. The women and young help showed their opposition even more than any other class. The new comers were regarded as nothing less than interlopers. Though many at last grew anxious and restive under suffering and deprivation, the general statement that the spinners had the confidence of the rest, appears well established.

IV. This class is especially represented by the spinner Sanderson. He was a non-resistant in the sense of believing that the decision of the employers should never be called in question. He was simply "inappreciative" of any change for the better. While matters were unsettled he worked at quarrying

on a ledge, standing in no need of speedy return to his old place. He doubtless would have been content to remain so, had not the employers made him frequent visits and urged him to serve them in an effort to resume work. It looks, also, as though the general promise of reward finally influenced him to stand in the breach and help break down the movement. He dreaded the results, but, once committed, stood bravely to his work. Nothing indicates that he was insulted or interfered with on the first day.

The next evening, after the proclamation, the alleged assault took place. After that he was protected. No molestation followed him home, or at home, although his way was through dense thickets for a long distance. He was evidently a reserved man, while his openly avowed opinions concerning Catholics must have greatly increased his unpopularity.

V. The crowds that gathered about the Durfee Mills were composed of all classes, though the factory element predominated. The closing of the mills at night occurred when other workmen were on their way home, or were on the streets to see what was going on. Women and children were out in large numbers. Some in these crowds threw stones, while many exhibited their displeasure by hooting. The water thrown by the fire department did not soothe the temper of the multitude. The civil authorities testify that there were no riotous doings, but that they feared there might be. Curiosity seems mainly to have drawn the crowd together. No leaders were on the ground. Whatever was done, was done from impulse. None had weapons. A carpenter had an altercation with a policeman, and a woman was fined for throwing stones. One employer intimates that those most active in the disturbance may not have been factory operatives. "There was no mob," says an officer, "only the elements of one."

VI. The civil authorities responded in all respects to the demands upon them by the employers. The mayor issued proclamations, called for extra police, issued a precept to the militia commander, and telegraphed for State constables. Questioning the expediency of harsh measures, all the time, he intended that no contingency should be unprovided for. Much was done, we have reason to believe, which he did not regard as absolutely

necessary. The military had really nothing to do, and the State police but very little.

The statement that one of the home companies could not be relied upon, because there were spinners in its ranks, is fairly offset by the fact that the commanding officer was one of the employers, and a treasurer of one of the mills. The expense of the display of force to the city and State is found to have exceeded four thousand dollars (\$4,000).

VII. Public feeling in the city was rather against the measures taken. It is not in evidence that the citizens took any active or efficient measures to arbitrate between the parties with a view to reconciling differences. We cannot resist the conclusion that there was unnecessary excitement.

II. STRIKE AT LYNN.

The next strike investigated was that which occurred in the boot and shoe trade at Lynn. It was of brief duration, and was terminated by a satisfactory compromise effected at a conference of committees of the two parties. The first persons examined were Messrs. Geo. W. Keene and Joseph Davis, both of them employers, the substance of whose testimony was as follows :—

TESTIMONY OF GEORGE W. KEENE AND JOSEPH DAVIS.

We have been engaged in the business of manufacturing boots and shoes, respectively, for thirty and sixteen years. There are two business seasons, the spring and the fall, the former commencing December 1 and lasting to June, and the latter commencing July 1 and ending October 15. Labor prices are arranged at the beginning of each season, and continue binding on both parties until its close. These prices are arranged by conference between employers and employed. The agreement is verbal, but has never been broken by either party. The price per pair varies with the season, the custom having been to pay more for the thick, fall work than for the thin, spring work; though we, as manufacturers, believe that no more should be paid in one case than in the other. Our employés, however, claim that the custom or law of the trade is founded on justice. At the commencement of the present season Mr. Davis, as usual, met his workmen in conference. They, under the instruction of their lodge, being Crispins, asked six cents a pair for lasting. Mr. Davis offered five cents a pair for a year, arguing that six cents was too much, and that it was no more work to last a

thick than a thin boot. The men replied that one kind was worth at least a quarter of a cent more, but they would agree to do it for five and one-half cents. They soon returned, however, stating that their union had adopted a uniform price for the entire city, yet, if Mr. Davis insisted, they would go to work as agreed. Mr. Davis concluded that it would be too much to ask them to stand by the agreement. As no orders had come in he closed up, as did the other manufacturers. At the expiration of a few weeks the employers being informed that the lodge wished a conference with the board of trade, the latter appointed a committee to meet a committee of the former. After two days of deliberation an agreement was entered into, fixing the price of lasting at five and one-fourth cents per pair, the contract to last one year. Work was resumed and has continued regularly ever since.

Both gentlemen spoke in high terms of the intelligence of the workmen, and of the fairness of their method of procedure in this matter.

By invitation of these gentlemen a visit was paid to the factory of Mr. Davis at Lynn, where all the processes of the work were examined and explained. There seemed to be a wholesome freedom of communication between the employer and his workmen, and a mutual good feeling existing

The next witness was Mr. L. C. Legro, one of the most prominent members of the Crispin order in the place.

TESTIMONY OF L. C. LEGRO.

I am a shoemaker, belong to our organization, which numbers some 2,000 members, and am now at work for it, looking after its bills, and the general running of its machinery. Cases of trouble between the men and the manufacturers are referred to me. Had the management of the business on the part of the men during the trouble now under inquiry. The circumstances were these: We had got over the spring work and were about commencing the fall season. The shoe manufacturers had formed their board of trade, composed of nearly every employer in the city. It had been agreed among them that there must be a reduction on tap-sole work from the price of the same season the year before, of about twenty-two per cent. Our organization met and agreed to a reduction of about seventeen per cent., with the hope that it might be satisfactory and all friction be avoided. The manufacturers returned a refusal, and offered us a bill of prices considerably under ours.

Of course we rejected it. The thing went on in this way for two or three weeks, the manufacturers getting uneasy, and many of the men finding themselves running into debt. The first steps looking toward negotiation were taken by Mr. S. M. Bubier and myself. Mr. Bubier is the largest manufacturer in the city, and in the State, so far as the number of pairs is concerned. I had worked for him some four years before, and had found myself forced to seek work elsewhere because I had presented a petition signed by his workmen, asking for more pay. Very soon after the general disagreement, of which we are speaking, we met and had some loud and very personal conversation about Chinamen, the organization, my own character, etc. At last the conversation turned upon the pending disagreement. I told him that I had advised submission to the reduction asked for up to a certain point. Beyond that I was not willing to go down a single mill. He said I was to blame, and I answered that I was willing to assume the responsibility. Afterwards I met him and found him cordial, but we said nothing about this matter. The thing had been in progress for two weeks when he called me into his counting-room to have some talk with him, as the head of the organization, about fixing the trouble up. We had a frank and open talk. I said that while we did not insist upon our own terms we could not accede to those of the manufacturers. He suggested that we appoint a committee to come before the Board of Trade. I answered that our organization must be recognized by theirs—that we must be treated as equals. The Board of Trade must recognize the Knights of St. Crispin. If they wished a conference or parley, they must send a request for the appointment of a committee to confer with a committee of theirs. He went to the Board of Trade and asked for the appointment of such a committee, and they complied. Of his own choice he appeared before us in person and made the announcement. We appointed a committee of five, which met theirs composed of an equal number. Their chairman presided. The matter was talked over, and it was agreed to recommend to the principals on either side the withdrawal of all previous propositions with a view to a new basis. Both committees were sustained in this by their respective constituents, and empowered to continue negotiations. The next meeting was spent in discussion. The third meeting resulted in a final bill of prices, which was submitted and agreed to by both parties. It was to be binding for a year, the manufacturers not agreeing to give us work for a year, but to give us a certain price for what was furnished. Everything was settled satisfactorily and with entire harmony. The best understanding exists between em-

ployers and employed, better than I have ever known before. We met each other on a more cordial and social basis than we have been in the habit of doing. Mr. Bubier proved himself an honorable, straightforward man. After everything had been settled he came down to our hall, went upon the platform and said, before my associates, that he had had words with me; that he was satisfied that he had been misinformed about me, and that he believed I was one of the most useful citizens of the city. This was one of the things which at once brought about a cordial understanding.

TESTIMONY OF W. F. KIMBALL.

[The statement of Mr. Kimball differed from that of Mr. Legro, in that it had special relation to the shop of his own employer, Mr. Joseph Davis.]

We knocked off work on the light, single-sole spring work. After loafing about three weeks we were asked by our employer to send in the prices for which we were willing to go to work on heavy, double-sole work. We made out our price-list and sent it in. It was not satisfactory. For a couple of weeks there was talk and contention. Then we made a proposition that we would go to work for certain prices for the whole year—two lists of prices for the two different seasons. We came to an agreement with Mr. Davis, and should have gone to work, but we found that there was some hard feeling among our fellow-workmen in other shops, and that many bosses objected to our making a compromise agreement to work for a year; so we told Mr. Davis how it was—that the proposition was designed to be conditional upon the agreement of other shops to the same plan, and so he refrained from holding us to our bargain, not considering that we were bound to fulfil the contract. The organizations of employers and employed then took up the matter and settled it on a mutual basis, applicable to all. No violence was used and no disturbance occurred. I don't think there has been a time for years when the feeling was so good between employers and employed as it is now, and has been since the contract was made.

TESTIMONY OF H. E. UPHILL.

Am a laster. This year the interval between single and double sole work was longer than it has been for four years. Why this was, I do not know, but suppose it to have been from the choice of the manufacturers, as my employer told me about the middle of June that he could set us to work then, though we really were not given work until the last week in July. Our employers are in the

habit of getting our prices before they commence the work of the season, and we have been accustomed to meet, consider the matter, and make out our list of prices. Whatever we sent in we generally failed to obtain, unconditionally and without compromise. There have been two exceptions during the last five years; this year we got our price and once last year. Last year we had better prices for our labor than at any time since I have had anything to do with shoemaking. In June this year when they sent to get our prices, we thought that as we had made a reduction of half a cent per pair on single-sole work, we would make the same concession on tap-sole work, supposing it would be perfectly satisfactory. The proposition was rejected. They wanted us to work for one cent less, and some at still further reduction. As they would not pay us our prices, and we would not work at theirs, the matter was in abeyance for some time. In Mr. Davis's shop we made an arrangement for a year, and worked under it one day. We found public sympathy and opinion against our agreement and it was broken up. Mr. Davis was fair and square in the matter. It would have been to his interest to have held us to the contract, as he could then have manufactured for two cents a pair cheaper than others. The general suspension of relations between employers and employed through the city, was removed by mutual agreement. The manufacturers have this year met and recognized us as men better than ever before within my knowledge.

Their list of prices was very fair, with one or two exceptions. I think the scale was a trifle too low, but am willing to sacrifice considerable rather than have trouble and bad feeling. Some of the manufacturers are disposed to ignore the bargain, whenever they can do so by putting a doubtful construction on any of its provisions. The prices fixed upon only cover two departments or branches of the business; in all other parts there is no agreement, except for the present season. As an example of the evasions to which I allude, take these instances. They agree to pay $5\frac{1}{4}$ cents for plain cloth up to 16 thread, and $5\frac{3}{4}$ cents for plain cloth of 16 thread and upward. By "thread" we mean so many threads to the inch. I have known instances where they have marked the 16 thread down, in order to evade the half cent extra, for the extra quality of goods. Have known the 16 thread to be marked as low as 14 thread. It was the understanding that we were to get for button boots of a certain kind, a half cent extra, and if they were rights and lefts, still another extra half cent. They evade it and give us but $5\frac{3}{4}$ cents instead of $6\frac{1}{4}$ cents. With these and a few other similar exceptions, everything is running smoothly. Two years

ago last December, we commenced work for which, in my department, 3 cents a pair was paid. We considered 5 cents a pair a fair price. We continued the season through, with an occasional very hard effort to get prices up. From time to time we succeeded in getting half and quarter of a cent, but it was not until about May 1st, that we got the price up to 5 cents a pair. I keep a careful record of everything I earn, and can tell to a pair how many shoes I have lasted for four years, and how much they have averaged me a pair for each year.

A review of this strike indicates the good results of conference between the parties concerned as a simple and efficient means of settling points of difficulties.

III. STRIKE AT NORTH ADAMS, AND INTRODUCTION OF CHINESE WORKMEN.

This strike may be considered worthy of notice more than any others that have occurred in Massachusetts, not indeed for its magnitude, but for the fact of its leading to the introduction of a new element into our laboring population. This consideration, and the conflicting accounts that reached us, induced a visit to North Adams, and to make personal examination and inquiry, the result of which is given below. The testimony was reported phonographically by Mr. Slade.

TESTIMONY OF C. T. SAMPSON.

I commenced retailing shoes eighteen years ago; but did not manufacture until 1858, when I made up a few pairs to measure. This was in North Adams. In 1860 was making a case of 60 pairs per day. Introduced the Wells pegging machine, the first made, in 1861. This was about as early as the use of improved machinery became common. The effect of this machine was to increase the number of persons employed. At first, however, all my men left the shop. They said the use of machinery would throw them out of employment; but the foreman told them not to be alarmed, as it would increase the number of hands required. Two-thirds of the men who left were French Canadians. They were out two or three weeks, and then came back to work. They had no organization; but it was the old English experience of strikes against the introduction of machinery. My experience is that the effect of machinery upon wages and earnings has been favorable. The workmen earn more than they used to; though they are idle more than before, and are disposed to sacrifice more time for their per-

sonal enjoyment. The industry of the workmen has not been promoted. My own experience is that the help could have all they wanted to do; but they earn such wages that they want a good time, and don't care to do more than a certain amount. This gives us another effect of machinery, viz.: a diminution of the amount of work done by the individual man. If the best workmen would work all the time they were able to, we should also have better shoes than now; because, to take the place of these good workmen when idle, we have to introduce many that are incompetent. To keep the machinery running we have to employ a surplus of men professing to be shoemakers, but who know nothing about it. The cause of the workman's idleness is his earning so good wages. Workmen employed at shoemaking are now mostly of foreign birth, the leading element in this vicinity being the French Canadian. Have not as yet been able to do the greater part of my work by machinery. I undertook to run lasting machines; but the men managed to make it cost me more than to do lasting by hand. The same has been true of other labor-saving machinery. There has been no strike against machinery since the introduction of the pegging machine alluded to.

Two years and a half ago, the Crispin order here struck against the employment of persons not members. That was my first introduction to them. The order did not spring up here, but was an importation from England in the form of trades-unions. It first cropped out in Milwaukee; was revived there. As I understand it, there is very little difference, if any, between the Coöperative Iron Founders' Association and the Molders' Association and the Crispins. The facts about the strike two years ago last May, are these: I employed a man, who was an excellent shoemaker, to make up a certain class of work. He could make a very nice shoe, and I wanted one of that kind made; so I set him to work in the room with other bottomers, not knowing anything about the Crispins. A few days after, my foreman notified me that there was a man at work up stairs that the help did not like to have there. When I asked why, he answered that he believed they had an order called the Knights of St. Crispin, and that it was so constituted that they could not work with a man not belonging to it. I replied that that was nothing to me; that I employed him, and I employed them. The matter rested until the next day, when they applied to the foreman to know if I wasn't going to turn the man off. He said he guessed not; and they, in turn, said they would not work in the room with any such man as that; his morals were too bad. They made that an excuse. Finally, I told the foreman to inform

them that if they were not satisfied they could leave; the man would be kept at work anyhow. So they came out. I went among them and said, "What's up now?" They said, "Turn out the man, and we will go to work." Speaking to the leader of the crowd, I said, "That man will not be turned off." "Well, then," said they, "we shall not go back to work." "Very well," said I, and told them to take out their benches and kits. So they hustled them out and piled them in front of the building. I kept my factory running with that man for three weeks. One day I had occasion to go away, and they whipped him while going to or coming from dinner. We had the persons who committed the violence bound over. After the man got well he was missing, and I have not seen or heard of him since. It was a matter of common conversation round the streets that \$200 would buy a shoemaker at any time. I don't know whether he received \$200 or not. We filled up our shop then with green hands. Mr. Chase, my superintendent, went to Maine, the foreman of the sewing rooms went to Canada, and the foreman of the bottoming room to Worcester County, to find help that did not belong to the order. We found them, and once a month, for some time, required them to sign a writing that they did not belong to the order and would not join it while in my employ. Very soon I found they all belonged to the order; but they kept very quiet until last winter. Many of the men that went out wanted to come back, and we received from twelve to twenty of them upon their signing a paper renouncing the order. The statement signed by the new men was as follows: "We, the undersigned, do solemnly swear that we do not belong to the order of the Knights of St. Crispin, and that we will not join them while in the employ of C. T. Sampson." I think the first ones were sworn to before a justice of the peace. I had one here. The pledge of honor was as follows: "This is to certify that I, ———, have belonged to the order of the Knights of St. Crispin, and have become satisfied that said order is of no practical benefit to its members, but a damage to them and their employers; and, also, that I have withdrawn from said order, and will not, in any way, directly or indirectly, aid in its support. To all of the above statement I do solemnly swear." This was signed and witnessed. The last one read as follows: "We, the employes of C. T. Sampson do solemnly swear that we do not belong to the order of Knights of St. Crispin, that those of us who have belonged, have withdrawn from the same, and now have no intercourse with the order; we further swear we will not have anything to do with the order while in the employ of C. T. Sampson." Not more than a third who so agreed took

part in the strike of last January. The men who did not violate the pledge subsequently went into other shops and found employment. We require no notice of our hands before leaving. It disturbs one's arrangement for them to leave; but that is the style of shoemakers. Let me illustrate by a little transaction, which occurred before this Crispin arrangement. They were not satisfied with the price I was paying, but wanted such wages as were paid in Stoneham. I told them I would give them what was paid in Stoneham the year round; if at any time I did not pay them as much as they were paying there, when I found out I would give them the difference; if I was paying too much, it was to be deducted. They agreed. After running a month I found I was not paying enough by nearly a dollar a case, and so made it good at very considerable outlay in the aggregate. The next month I found I was paying nearly half a dollar too much; but when I called their attention to it "they didn't know anything about that." "Then," I said, "I shall pay you what I please hereafter." That is the style of shoemakers.

Before we commenced here in the new factory we thought we would see if we could not manage our business in a smooth way, so we paid the help as they asked, and everything was going on nicely. I went to Boston to make my sales, and while there had a letter from Mr. Chase that I didn't like. I could see from its tone that there was some turmoil here. Immediately after had a telegram saying things were getting bad, and so hurried home on the next train. I called the boys together and asked what the matter was. They said nothing in particular, only they wanted more pay. They wanted as much for a single sole shoe as for a thick sole one. Some other shops had just given it; but I told them I should not. They brought the matter up in the lodge, where such and such prices were voted and a committee appointed to present their list to the manufacturers. The prices were those we had been paying for thick-soled work. When I had gone back they tried to get up another row, but on my return things were gliding along quite smoothly, though there seemed to be something about the shop as though all was not working right. The shoes began to come out very poor. I asked my foreman what the trouble was. He answered that there were some teams that ought to be changed. I ordered him to turn them off and get others. He did so, and the shoes came out better. That encouraged me. Then, very soon, the work was down poor again all through the shop. I asked for the second time what the trouble was, and was told that they were not allowed to make any better shoes. I told him if that was the case there must be a change;

I could not stand it, and would not. Goods were returned frequently, and from nearly all my customers, on account of inferior workmanship. I determined as soon as it became a little dull to put myself on the defensive. I found I could not govern my own business, so I asked the boys one morning if they were willing to work for any less through the dull times, and have all the work they could do. Their first response was "yes." But soon a paper was circulated, a meeting called, and the lodge voted "No." They would rather not work at all, than be accumulating shoes which would, as they thought, injure their labor by and by. A committee of three waited upon me, and communicated their non-acceptance of my proposition. That was just what I wanted them to do. I didn't want them to work, and make up such a poor quality as they had been making. We had 23 teams (three in a team), and I told the foreman to retain 10 of the best. I said to Mr. Chase: "Now I guess we will get some workmen." He says: "What shall we do?" In answer I said: "Mr. Batchelder, of North Brookfield, is not doing much, and the prospect is he will not do much for some time. It strikes me as very probable that we can get a quantity of American help there, and make it just such help as we want." He says: "Shall we hire those that belong to the order?" I said, "Oh! certainly. Don't hire anybody that does not belong to the order. Be particular about that, so as not to have any rupture." All we were after was good help, Crispin or no Crispin. I was a stranger to the new men, and they didn't know much about my ability. However, they thought it over, and sent a man up with Mr. Chase to look the ground over, see how things were, and if everything was all right he was to go back and report, I paying him expenses and wages. He came, found things as described, and went back on Friday. Then came the tug of war, as you may say. On Monday quite a number came on, looked the shop over, and said it appeared as though they could make money here. They found the prices as reported, and were so well pleased that they said they could make more wages than they had ever made with Batchelder. They were nice-looking fellows, and we were pretty well pleased. That night a lodge meeting was called, a committee waited upon the men with an invitation to attend, and they went up. The lodge men objected to the others going to work, as there was a strike on hand. The Brookfield men remained about four days, and during the time three lodge meetings were held. The men here said: "There are plenty of workmen in town; you are not needed here and must not go to work." And they did not. One of the objections when they came to me was, that it was not a sure thing. I made it clear on that point, and

after further talk voluntarily raised the rate a dollar a case over what had been promised them in Brookfield. The point was then raised as to how long I would do it, and I agreed to put myself under \$50,000 bonds to keep my word with them in every particular for one year's time. Then they brought up another thing in these words: "Mr. Sampson, you have in your shop some men whom you consider good workmen, and we would not feel like going to work in their places, knowing they were good workmen." "Very well," I said, "I will take that objection out of the way, and keep these men at work." So we called down a number of them and told them they could remain at work. Then the new men said: "We have nothing more to say." Before this they had said to me, "We don't like to work where there is to be trouble. We belong to the order of the Knights of St. Crispin, and if we stay there will be trouble." I said, "Didn't you know this? didn't the man that came up here look the matter over, and report that everything was favorable?" "Yes; but we have been here ourselves." After the conversation already described they went up town by the hotel, and were talking with the Crispins all the rest of the time they were here. Appearances indicated that they had been treated to whiskey pretty liberally, and had been induced to go back. Now comes the point. I felt so bad about their going back, that I could not restrain myself from giving them a little short lecture, but it was very mild. I said: "You are going, and I am very sorry. It has been a considerable expense to me. I expected to get my shop to running in such a manner that things would move along smoothly." They said, "You have offered us everything that was fair. We have no fault to find." Some of them said, "We probably shall come back to work for you sometime." I said, "Boys, if you leave North Adams, you will never work for me." "What do you mean," said they, "are you going out of business?" "No," said I, "I am not, but I shall just as sure enter a wedge that will destroy your order in five years, as you go back to North Brookfield." Said they, "What are you going to do?" My answer was this: "If I am to fight an enemy, my batteries are masked and I keep them masked." It created considerable excitement. I said no more. Some said to themselves, "I have a good mind not to go." I said, "Act your own pleasure. It is for you to say. If you stay, I shall not enter the wedge; but if you go, I shall surely do it. I have made my last proposition, and shall do no more." They seemed bent on destruction, and went back.

I waited until sure they were aboard the cars, then came to the shop and called Mr. Chase into the office, as well as Mr. White

from the stitching-room; Mr. W. had worked on the Pacific road and could tell me about it. I inquired of him the most direct route from Chicago to San Francisco. He told me, and I said, "Mr. Chase, will you take the four o'clock train to-night for San Francisco?" He said: "I will try and get ready. What do you want?" I said: "When you get all packed up I want you to come in here, and I will give you instructions." He says: "Can I do the business?" I says, "You can." When ready he came in. I sat down and talked with him for three-quarters of an hour. I told him to go to San Francisco and hire me seventy-five Chinamen. If he could not get men experienced in making shoes, he was to engage those who had a natural turn for mechanism. I told him not to go to Koopmanschap, as the Chinamen secured through him were nothing more than servile laborers. He says: "I am going haphazard, and don't know whether I shall accomplish anything or not." "Well," I said, "your time is paid, your expenses are paid—go." So he went, and when there looked the matter over carefully. He went to Koopmanschap and found it as I had imagined. Then he went to a man named Battles, who employs Chinamen making shoes. • He said: "I think you will find these men adapted to any pursuit you have a mind to employ them for. They are not ingenious, but so far as my experience goes, are very imitative—will imitate anything they see." He showed some shoes made by Chinamen who had been with him at work but six weeks, and these were good enough. After inquiring where similar men could be got, he introduced Mr. Chase to the house of Kwong, Chong, Wing & Co., who kept an intelligence office or emigrant agency. This firm is composed of many members, of whom Charley Sing, the overseer, is one. Ah Yung, another partner, inquired of Mr. Chase about his letters of credit. Each man puts in what money he has got, and draws out profits in proportion to the money put in. They are very particular where they send their men. They mean to be sure, if they bind them out, that their people are going to get their pay and be treated well. Two days were spent investigating the matter before they gave any encouragement. Then Ah Yung says: "We will furnish you the men," and did so at once. The men would have been ready within twenty-four hours, but Mr. Chase did not want to hurry the thing up so much. Two or three times a day he would go to the store and watch the progress of events. A good many were drawn in by a notice posted on the door, in which the facts of the case were stated, and those applying were given to understand that they were going to learn a trade. There were very

many Chinamen idle in San Francisco then, who had previously been engaged in railroad work. Some of the store hands went out and picked up men whom they knew, and a few were hunted up in Sacramento. When a man applied they took his name, and when a large number had been registered they selected out enough of the best to make up the quota wanted. It was Thursday night when the bargain was closed. The following Wednesday the men were on the way. They had been placed in charge of Charley Sing, and the first time Mr. Chase saw them altogether was at the ferry landing, where he was introduced to them informally. Each man had a roll made up of his bed, blanket and clothing. This roll was carried over the shoulder on a bamboo pole. Some had an extra suit and some had not. They also brought along tea, rice, and Chinese merchandise. The baggage allowance was one hundred pounds to a man; but they did not average but about fifty or sixty pounds, including everything. From Oakland, opposite San Francisco, they came all the way by rail, spending all their time in the cars. The railroad journey lasted from the evening of June 1st to the evening of June 13th. They had no idea of the distance to Massachusetts, I presume, but they were cheerful, and made no special complaints. After they had been out about a week some of them asked if they were almost there. Sing would say we shall be there in a day or two. They had some sort of meat with them, also some square crackers. When the cars stopped for an hour or two, they would cook rice, and at the stations would sometimes buy Bologna sausages. There was no difficulty on the way to speak of. Mr. Chase would telegraph to the station agents ahead where there was any likelihood of trouble, and policemen would be on hand. Where the trains stopped but five minutes at a station, no one was allowed to get out of or into their cars. There were two cars for the Chinamen. Emigrant cars were used from California to Omaha; regular passenger cars from Omaha to Suspension Bridge; and emigrant cars from that point to this. When the train reached Omaha, the conductor went through these cars, and remarked that it was the cleanliest lot of emigrants that ever went over the road. He praised them, especially as contrasted with the Swedes and Germans. I met the men at Eagle Bridge, up towards Troy. We had no serious trouble, though it was anticipated. Previous to their coming we were notified that if the Chinamen stepped their feet into North Adams they would be shot, and that if I showed my head I should meet the same fate. There was a great crowd of people at the depot. We were twenty-five minutes coming from it to the factory, a distance of less than a quarter of a mile. There

was every chance for the execution of threats. A few spirited with whiskey pitched in. Two of them, Frenchmen, who had worked for me, were put in the lockup at once, and nothing more transpired. I only knew of one or two Chinamen that were armed. All might have been, no one knew. I never said anything to them about attack, nor did I provide them with means of offence or defence. The foreman had a revolver. The way Mr. Chase discovered that was this: Out West an Irishman came into the car, staid there a few minutes, and tried to say something to the Chinamen. Sing asked him what he was doing there, and on being told he came to look at the Chinamen, says, "Look at them and go out." The Irishman answers, "I will not go out until I d—n please." Sing says, "You will go." The man answers, "I will not," and draws a revolver. Sing (who has lived for eight years among the mining towns of California) draws his, and backs the Irishman out of the car. I don't think they had armed themselves against an anticipated attack. Sing has said as much. On the way to the factory they moved along arm in arm. There were three State policemen, and seven of my workmen were sworn in as specials. About half had revolvers, the rest clubs. At the depot Mr. Chase introduced me to Sing, and Sing gave the boys to understand that I was their "boss-man." They were organized into teams at once, and taught everything connected with the business, to which they were total strangers. We communicated with them as you would with a deaf and dumb person. The work at first was about the average work of beginners. My agreement or contract was not made with the men personally, but was made and signed with Kwong, Chong, Wing & Co. I have made no contract or agreement with the men since arriving here. They are held to me for a certain number of years; at the end of the time they are at liberty to dispose of themselves as they see fit, or renew the contract. *I decline to show the contract.* The payment goes to the men, and is by the month. The money is put in the hands of the foreman (Sing) monthly. He keeps their accounts. The men board in a club, and are having things through the month, which he gets and charges. He deducts these, and unless they want to send sums away, pays the rest over for their own use. I make out the drafts and send them. These do not recognize each individual, but some agent to whom a letter of instruction is sent containing statements of account with different parties. This agent takes the enclosure and satisfies the claims of individuals to whom they are indebted. I pay nothing but cash. I paid a dollar a man

to the firm through whom I procured this help. They paid forty-five dollars for dispatches inquiring into my responsibility. Since the Chinamen have got to work, there have been threats of blowing up the mill and destroying Mr. Chase and myself. These threats were not in writing, but verbal and floating. The first threats came through the Crispin lodge, from a man who said he would shoot the first Chinaman that came here. Crispins have used to Mr. Chase's father such expressions as these: "I would like to see that mill blown up!" "I would like to do it!" "I would just as lief do it as not!" or, "I know a man that will do it!" I have suffered no violence. There has been a watch here. Stones have been thrown through the windows once or twice. It was done by Crispins. The watchman saw them. The Chinamen don't seem to be afraid to go about town at all, though they have been waylaid once or twice, and kicked several times. Men have slapped them in the face, but they don't say anything about it, and when you ask about it you cannot find who has been struck. They are out almost every evening. Their ordinary food is meat and vegetables. They use tea, taking a few swallows before and after meals, but not drinking it with their food. Their tea comes from their own people. Coffee is not drank by them. Rice is their bread and butter. They have it at every meal, together with beef, pork, mutton and fish, or something of the sort, and vegetables. Sing buys their food, and they have two cooks of their own. Besides their tea they have some preserved things from China, ginger, etc. It will be cheaper to manufacture shoes with these than with other workmen. When this kind of labor becomes general, the consumer will reap the benefit.

Temperate men of ordinary thrift and having an ordinary family—say two children—who were employed by me under the former system, could, from their yearly earnings at steady work, maintain their families, and lay up something besides for permanent real estate investment. I can mention any number of instances where it has been done. I have known instances where men, laboring with their hands, have been able to accumulate, at fifty years of age, such a sum of money as would give them, put at interest, as much per day as their usual wages. Such cases are exceptional. My pay-roll for the month of April was \$7,000 for 150 men; in the bottomer's department, \$4,350 for sixty-six men. *I decline to give the amount for any month since, as it would deter me from carrying out my future plans.*

TESTIMONY OF ALFRED L. WOOD.

Am a citizen of the town; have worked here, as a shoemaker, eight years; have never worked for Mr. Sampson. Was presiding officer of the Crispin lodge at the time of the strike. The trouble commenced about the first of May, when Mr. Sampson called the bottomers into his receiving room, told them he had just come from market which was rather dull, and said that he wanted his shoes made for less, by a dollar a case. They told him they would let him know in a day or two. Meanwhile they brought the matter before the lodge, saying that Mr. Sampson wanted them to work at a reduction for six or eight weeks, when he would put them back to the old price. It was said that he represented that even under these terms, he should run his shop more to accommodate the men than himself. A committee was chosen, who waited on Mr. Sampson and told him that if he did not want to make shoes, and would rather shut down, they were perfectly willing, and would go to work again when business revived and when he could pay the old wages. He seemed very well pleased, and we supposed the matter was settled. In a few days we heard he had sent to Brookfield and hired some men there. After awhile they came on. We saw no committee in advance of their coming. There were two or three gangs, the first containing about fifteen men. Think this was about the middle of the month. Some of our boys saw them; a special meeting of the lodge was called and they came to the lodge room. A statement of the affair at Mr. Sampson's was made to them. We showed them that he seemed more anxious to throw his old hands out of work than to do anything else. After making inquiries these men seemed to be perfectly satisfied with our statements. About half of them were foreigners and half Americans. They staid here nearly a week. So far as I saw them they were sober. They were all Crispins. They decided not to go to work, because they thought Mr. Sampson had not done the fair thing by us, and they didn't want to interfere. They said they would not work for less than we had been having, while, on the other hand, Mr. Sampson had represented to us that he could not pay so much for six or eight weeks, upon which understanding we had decided to knock off. The course of Mr. Sampson was regarded by the Brookfield men as a breach of faith or understanding, and they went back home. The same day Mr. Chase left town,—we afterwards learned for San Francisco. Mr. Sampson has had difficulties with his men before this affair, but I don't know very much about them. I saw the Chinese pass State Street on their arrival upon the four o'clock train from Troy. Mr. Sampson and Mr. Chase were at the head of

the column, and a great many people were out. There was no violence used to my knowledge. I heard that a couple of stones were thrown by boys. Heard no threats made against Mr. Sampson or his property. None were ever made in the lodge in my hearing. Since the Chinese have been at work, no violence has been used upon them by shoemakers or Crispins, to my knowledge. The general feeling among the Crispins is to let the experiment be tried without molestation. The troubles with Mr. Sampson and other manufacturers have induced us to start a coöperative establishment.

TESTIMONY OF DANIEL LUTHER.

Am a shoemaker but not a Crispin; have never been one. I have worked for Mr. Sampson a good deal, but left his employ in September, three years ago. There was no strike while I was with him, though there was trouble once. The strike, of two years and a half ago was on account of a man named St. John. I knew him personally. In 1863 I worked near him at Mr. Sampson's. His character was very bad. He was given to drinking, gambling, dishonesty, and all sorts of dissipation; he was also treacherous and deceitful. About that time he ran away from town in debt to Mr. Sampson, having taken pay for work left unfinished. I was not at work at the time of the St. John strike, having left Mr. Sampson on account of bad treatment. What I knew of that strike was obtained from men who worked there and with whom I have since worked, as well as from St. John himself. I rely a good deal upon what he said, because what he told me was against himself. He told me he was sent for by Mr. Sampson, and put into the shop when the other hands did not have what they wanted to do. He was a nice fast workman, better than the average, when he had a mind to be. He could slight it too, when he chose, and would make as poor work as anybody. The boys objected to working with him. He said it was because he wouldn't join the Crispins, and used a good deal of profanity and seemed to be quite angry because they tried to have him to do so. He said he could make peace with them and stay if he chose to join them. But he carried the idea to me that he came back for the purpose of making trouble. He said Mr. Sampson was going to test the strength of the Crispin order, if he could bring up anything for a good excuse; that it was over him this time; and that they had struck when he told them this, and had left their work and the shop. This was the substance of a conversation I had with him before he was whipped. I don't know who whipped him. He didn't know him-

self; at least that is what he told me. What he said about the matters of the strike, was, in the main, corroborated by others; so I believed it. Pretty much all the men who struck went back after awhile. Think St. John left them soon after the strike. I don't know why; but should think because it was getting a little too warm for him here. They all looked upon him as the cause of their troubles. He had very few associates. The last strike was general through the town, and included the shop where I am now working. It was a strike against a reduction of wages to the extent of one dollar per case. We had been waiting for work for three weeks, but were unwilling to work at the reduction. Very few went back. In the course of a month new help was hired,—apprentices,—most of them in town. Before the last strike, Mr. Sampson had had trouble with his help. He reduced their wages; they turned out; and then he raised them again and they went back. On account of this the other manufacturers, when they met to make an agreement as to reduction, did not invite Mr. Sampson to confer with them. I was present when the Chinamen came. I heard no threats of violence, nor any unusual noise. I heard some boys shouting “rats.” Think there were four or five hundred in the crowd. It was composed of a mixture of men and boys.

I have been a foreman for Mr. Sampson. When I worked for him, the hands were mostly American and French. Their general character was good. They were as temperate and honest as the average of citizens. Once I went to Stoneham for him to get new hands. I got some men and brought them on. According to his instructions I promised them a case a day for a year. When I brought them to his office and turned them over I repeated to him my statement to them, and he said it was correct. They worked five weeks according to agreement, and then he put them down to three cases a week, and said he never promised them any more. It made trouble, but there was no strike. One team left. The reason I left Mr. Sampson, as I said before, was on account of unfair treatment. He never kept a single bargain with me that he ever made. I judge that the weekly pay-roll in the department where the Chinamen are employed, amounts to almost \$643, and that the average production is sixty cases a week. On that basis his shoes would cost him not less than \$9 a case, estimating upon three kinds of work made, which price is as high as is paid by any one in town. Mr. S. has said in the street that when he got sixty cases made by the Chinamen, he should have twenty cases made for nothing, at the rate other bosses were paying, which I think is far from being the case.

TESTIMONY OF OLIVER A. BROWN.

Am a shoemaker, of French Canadian parentage, and have been here, off and on, since 1844. Have worked for Mr. Sampson, but not at the time of either of the strikes in his shop. I have had good chances to know about them, however, from the parties engaged. When the Chinese came into town I did not leave my work to go and see them. The excitement that night seemed to be very great. I thought Mr. Sampson had the right to get the Chinese if he wanted, and I had no disposition to interfere. The proposition of Mr. S. to his men, as presented to the lodge, was, that if they didn't wish to go to work, they could lay still until the first of July, when he would give the same price—a course which would be better for him. I advised an acceptance of this proposition. When the committee told Mr. Sampson of our action, he said it would suit him better than to continue to work; he would make more money in the end. The next day I saw Mr. Chase on the street. He asked me if I didn't think the men missed it, and added that Mr. Sampson was very much tickled over it. The same day Mr. Chase went to Brookfield, and it was found, when the men from there came, that Mr. Sampson had made an agreement to wait, and had then sent off and got other men. One reason why the Brookfield men did not go to work was, because of misrepresentation; Mr. Sampson having given them to understand that there was no trouble, except that some men wanted to make more in proportion to other men than they were entitled to, and he wanted help that could agree. We heard they were coming three or four days in advance, but most of us did not believe it. When several of them had come, a brother-in-law of mine, who used to be in Brookfield, invited them to the lodge. It was a regular meeting. They came, but did not say very much. No proposition was made to them that night. I was chosen a committee to go to Brookfield and investigate the matter there. At a subsequent meeting it came up that some of them were too poor to pay their expenses back, but they would go back if it could be done without expense to them. Finding there was trouble here, they did not wish to go to work, and some of them said they would not any way. I don't know which party first proposed the matter of going back. I cannot find any record showing that a man belonging to the order came on in advance from Brookfield to investigate, nor do I know any member who was so consulted. Nearly a quarter of a year previous to this trouble I met Mr. Sampson, while working in Albany, and in the course of the conversation he said: "I will show the Crispins that they can't control my business. I will

have the Chinese here the first thing you know." Mr. Sampson and I belong to the same church. I have nothing against him whatever.

As to St. John, he came to Albany to get me to help him into the lodge. It is not true that the Crispins wanted to compel him to join; they didn't want him in the town at all. He was a suspicious character. I wrote letters in his favor, saying that he seemed to talk as though he was reformed. He wandered about, got trusted for his board, and went back. Soon I heard that he was about going to Montreal to get help for Mr. Sampson. He had kept to work at the time of the strike, and also found all the help he could get for Mr. S. When he reached Troy he went to Mr. Wood and said: "I am going to Montreal to get help; if you will give me some money I will find you twelve men." Wood, mistrusting that when he advanced him the money he was going to clear out, had him arrested, and it was found that he was acting for Mr. Sampson, Mr. Chase having come on to testify how much money had been given him. He had spent part of it, and, on agreeing to leave for parts unknown, they let him go. St. John would drink, get in debt, and only pay up when obliged to do so. I should not believe his ordinary statement, and should doubt what he said upon oath. I have never heard threats of violence against Mr. Sampson, his property or the Chinese. Before they got here I heard men—others as well as Crispins—say that some one ought to go and stop the whole concern; but the advice given, so far as I know, was, that the least there was said and done the better. Mr. Sampson is very passionate, but gets over it in a little while.

TESTIMONY OF W. E. HASKINS.

St. John was a man that was a little light-fingered. He would take kit, and the boys did not like to work with him. Work was short at the time, and they thought Mr. Sampson ought not to hire him, especially as he had turned him off once, and had said he would never hire him again under any consideration. We told the foreman we didn't want to work with him, and he said he didn't know as he blamed us any. He went to St. John and told him to stop; then went down and reported to Mr. Sampson, who answered, "Tell that man to go to work, if every other man quits." The men, when they heard it, "dropped the ribbons," and left. When he went to Troy for Mr. Sampson, I believe he had \$50, and while there tried to draw more. After being locked up, he got clear on the plea that he had been sent for help by Mr. Sampson; that he was going for the help, and had not then accomplished his business.

In this way he proved he was not trying to run away, and so got clear. I have no reason to think that Mr. Sampson ever got his \$50 back. St. John has never returned. I don't know who assaulted him. Three or four men were arrested. Nothing was proved against them and they were discharged. Mr. Sampson sent St. John for help after he had been assaulted.

TESTIMONY OF ISAAC TYLER.

I am a shoemaker, and live in Williamstown, coming over to work in the morning and returning at night. Have worked thirty years at the trade, and here for three years. Commenced with Mr. Sampson soon after the first strike. When I applied for work he asked me if I was a union man. I told him I was, but didn't belong to any secret society. After the second year we signed an agreement not to join the Crispins while working for him. Afterwards I joined them. I could get more pay at shoemaking than anything else, and the Crispins did not allow one or two of the order in a team to work with a man not a Crispin; so I joined the order to get more pay. I continued working for Mr. Sampson until about the time of the arrival of the Chinamen. The last strike was on account of a ten per cent. reduction. Mr. Sampson had said it was immaterial to him whether he stopped or continued work at the reduced wages; if anything, he preferred to stop. Before the reduction I earned \$3 per day. There are five in my family, and I got a comfortable living on that sum. I own a house and some land clear; do what I can on the land, and hire what other work I need. I work in the shop about eight hours a day. It takes an hour each way to go and come. After the committee had communicated the decision of the lodge, Mr. Sampson said, "You may make up what you have got out and quit." Then the committee say, "If you have any orders to fill the boys are willing to make them up at the old price." He says: "I have a dozen or fifteen cases; you may keep on and fill the orders." So we kept on, and made up about thirty cases. During this time he sent to Brookfield and got his men; but some of our boys persuaded them to go back. Then he sent out and got fifteen or sixteen teams. These men worked until a week or ten days before the arrival of the Chinamen. There was no strike then, but when we went to the receiving room for uppers, we found that there were none there for us. Awhile after we made an arrangement to go into coöperation, and one day I met Mr. Sampson with Mr. Chase, his father-in-law, on the sidewalk. He says to me: "I understand you are going to manufacture goods?" I says: "We talk of it some." He answers: "I am

glad of it; I have got my men all hired." "Well," I says, "we are going to put ourselves as close to you as possible, if we can get the land." I have never heard of any violence, or threats of violence, against Mr. Sampson or Mr. Chase; nor have I heard Mr. Sampson threaten the Crispins. When the Chinese arrived I saw no disturbance, and heard nothing unusual, unless it was some hallooing from boys.

TESTIMONY OF EDWARD GREGSON.

I saw the Chinamen on the street when they arrived. There was no violence or disturbance, unless it was some boys shouting. I never heard any threats of personal violence or of the destruction of property in connection with Mr. Sampson. One day, when he was fitting up his shop, he said to me, "Now, Gregson, there is a chance for you to go to work here." I said, "I don't want to work for you." Said he, "Just as sure as you men don't come right down to it and leave the order, I shall get the Chinamen." "Well," said I, "it is the best thing you can do; I don't ask any odds of you;" whereupon I left him.

TESTIMONY OF L. W. LEMOINE.

Am a shoemaker and Crispin. It is thought by most people that I belong to the church, but I don't. Have lived in town twenty-five years. Have never worked for Mr. Sampson but two or three months. I saw no violence of any sort at the time of the arrival of the Chinamen. The same evening I was standing on the corner of Centre and Eagle Streets, talking with a man about them. Soon he left me, and I was passing along, when another man came up and detained me. Just afterwards Mr. Sampson came along. As he passed I bade him good evening, and he returned the compliment. "Well," says I, "your Chinamen have got along." Previous to this we had a talk about them, in which he had told me he was going to get some. That was the reason I introduced the subject. He says, "Yes; and it is a pretty piece of business that a lot of respectable men can't come into the village without being insulted and hooted at, as they have been to-day." I said, "I don't know as I am to blame." "Well," said he, "you are a Crispin, and are just as bad as any of them." As he stood facing me I saw he had a pistol in his hand. I said, "What have you there?" He replies, "A pistol." I says, "Don't point it at me." He remarked that it was harmless, or something of that kind; and I said I thought it might be loaded. He says, "It is loaded." I said again, "Don't point it at me;" and he dropped it down, say-

ing he was pointing it at a man across the street. He had his back against the fence. I looked in the direction, but could not see any one. Soon he started down the street, the boys hooting after him "rats." I had no words of dispute with him. He is very passionate, and flies off quick. He once remarked to me, when settling up for money which I had loaned him, "If a man steps on my toes, I will have revenge on him, if it is not for years after." I said, "I have not trodden on your toes." "Well," said he, "you have dunned me. I was going to ask you to work for me; but now I will not have you work for me anyhow." Two or three years after I went up and worked for him a little while, but saw I could not prosper there at all, and made up my mind to go away as soon as I could, and have nothing more to do with him. Have never belonged to any society with him, except to a military company, eighteen years ago. When Mr. Sampson held his pistol towards me, I didn't really think he intended to shoot me; but I thought he was so excited that he would not have known whether he had shot it off or not. I didn't complain of him, because I didn't care to have any trouble. Have heard of his threatening other people.

TESTIMONY OF LUCIUS A. ELLIS.

Am in general trade in North Adams, keeping boots, shoes, hats, caps and a full line of provisions. Have been in business since 1864. My customers have largely been among the laboring class, perhaps one-fifth of them shoemakers. About half these men pay once a week; the other half once a month. My losses from bad debts have been very small. The tendency of the coming of the Chinamen has been to make trade dull. My trade has been some two hundred dollars a month less. The displaced seventy-five American laborers would spend at the stores from ten to fifteen dollars a week each, say from \$750 to \$1,100 in all; while the new comers buy very little. From a third to a half of the old set have left town with their families. The trade of a family, say of four persons, would amount, with me, to from \$20 to \$40 a month. The wages of a Chinaman are understood to be only about \$20 a month, while the men displaced earned from \$45 to \$60. When the Chinamen came I saw no violence. I heard "rats" hallooed. Saw nothing specially out of order. Have heard the Crispins say they would countenance nothing in the shape of violence. For instance, a man came into my store one day, and represented that as I was in business, it was for my interest that the laboring man should get the largest wages he could. He then said, "I can get

a hundred men to go down and take that factory, and clean it out." There were one or two Crispins present, who spoke up at once and said they would not countenance any violence. I never heard anything else in the nature of a threat against Mr. Sampson or the Chinamen.

CONCLUSIONS.

On review of the testimony just closed, it is difficult to indicate the real, underlying origin of the affair, excepting on the supposition of a pre-existing thought or intent of accomplishing, at some date, and by some means, the introduction of a new element of labor which would work at less price, for awhile at least, and be of a more manageable nature than the old, as it would be, if ignorant of the power of combination. It cannot fail of notice that there appears to have been no mutual sympathies, personal or other, between Mr. Sampson and his workmen. Nor did the introduction of the man St. John, a person whose reputation was in bad odor, and with whom the workmen refused to work or associate, improve matters. It is in testimony that he had before been employed by Mr. Sampson, and discharged for cause; that after awhile he was re-employed, the other workmen leaving therefor; that an assault was made upon him by unknown parties; that he was sent by Mr. S. with pecuniary means to procure Canadian help, and that he did not return to North Adams. There is difficulty, also, in other points. Mr. S. proposes to his men, on occasion of slack demand, their choice between reduction of wages or stoppage of work, for a time. They select the latter, and he expresses satisfaction, but immediately sends for other help to a remote shoe town, directing the hiring of none but Crispins (even offering higher wages), against whose order he had declared strong opposition. On their coming, looking into matters, and deciding not to stay, he at once sends for and procures Chinese unskilled laborers, the terms of whose contract he declined to give.

Matters appeared to be going on smoothly at our visit, and the new workmen were industriously attaining skill. But it remains for time to prove whether, as they become Americanized and attain knowledge of the methods of work and mode of life of their fellow-craftsmen here, they will be contented to

remain as they are now, both in wages and life, or whether they will learn and practise both combination and strike,* as they have done in their own country with fearful result, or as in Calcutta, where, as the *London Spectator* declares, they have the most successful and powerful trade-union in the world.†

IV. STRIKE AT MARLBOROUGH.

Some peculiar features of this movement induced inquiry, inasmuch as it did not relate to either wages, method of work, or hours of labor. Summoning, therefore, Mr. L. A. Howe, the employer concerned, and some prominent workmen, we obtained the following statements:—

TESTIMONY OF L. A. HOWE.

Have manufactured shoes in Marlborough for almost seventeen years. The first strike on me by my employés was two and a half years ago, before the organization of the Crispins, but when there was a shoemakers' union in town. The object of the strike was to get more pay. Since that time have had a good many, lasting from three days to three weeks each. They were generally successful. The men would come and demand more pay. If we said we couldn't give it, they would put down their tools and leave the shop. You couldn't get anybody to take their places; so there was no way but to call them back. As a general thing, these strikes would be against one shop; succeeding there they would take another. They didn't care about having two shops on their hands at once. No personal violence was used worth speaking of. Most of the workmen are Irish, but the American help join with them. Once I hired my help for six months; at the end of three months they struck on me. There was nothing I could do but pay it. The result was, that for three months they took out of me thirty dollars a day. A good many acknowledged that it was a wrong thing, but the majority carried it out. I settled with my help once a month, but paid them money any time they needed it. Never asked a man to take an order of any description, unless he made an application for it. Often when nothing was due them they would take an order. Orders are of some benefit to me, as the storekeepers and marketmen discount two per cent. when I pay them. They would rather do so than trust the men. Don't think I average \$100 a month in orders. I pay by the pair, and by the part—so much for pegging, so much for lasting, etc. Think

* Conwell's "Why and How," p. 67.

† Dec. 10, 1861.

the average earnings of the men are \$3 per day, for ten and a half months in the year. Some of my men now can easily earn \$4 with eight hours' work. I should keep running the year through, not even stopping to take account of stock, if it were not for these troubles. This steadiness is not usual with manufacturers, but I make a class of work which sells as well one season as another. Think the general average of employment in Marlborough is more than ten months and a half per year.

This spring the Crispins commenced a strike against men who had never joined the order. They had struck in three or four shops; so some time in May I asked my men if I had any one in my employ that I had got to turn off. I knew that I had, if they intended to treat me as they had treated other manufacturers. I told my men that every time there had been trouble, they had taken me when I was full of orders and could not stop; so if there was any matter coming up, I wanted to settle it while I was in no hurry and could attend to it. This was on Thursday. They said they would let me know Monday morning. At that time they said they could not answer me. If I had any inquiries to make I must put them in writing, and send them to the lodge. I have never recognized the lodge, though some manufacturers have; so I told them I hadn't anything to do with the lodge. In less than five minutes they went out and never came back. I understood they were going to strike on those of my men who were Crispins, in the sense of "once a Crispin always a Crispin,"—men who had asked for their discharge and could not get it,—men who refused to pay their dues; but men of good standing,—some of the best men in town,—workmen who had been in my employ for ten years. When they went away they left their kits in the shop. After the strike had lasted three weeks, I offered them ten dollars a piece to take their kits away, and they wouldn't. I should have been justified in putting their tools out, but I knew it would make trouble, and so didn't do it. Every two or three days they sent committees to me. They said I couldn't manufacture unless I had them back, but all of them told me I was doing right. I asked them why they wouldn't go to work. They said they couldn't do it, as they had joined the order; they would go to the poor-house before they would ever work for me. The last committee that came was from Ashland, Hopkinton and Westborough. I told these men how I was situated, and asked them to use their influence to have my men take their kits out of the shop. They wished to know if I had refused to hire Crispins. I said I would hire Crispins as soon as anybody, if they would only let me hire who I pleased. The morning after this they came and took their kits

away, leaving a guard in front of my door, and keeping it there for four months. It is on now. If they could, they would hire or frighten away every man that came to my shop for a job. They would offer to draw a check on their money in the bank for as high a sum as \$500. One man was offered \$6 a day as long as he lived. He refused, though he was a Crispin,—at least, was on their books. The threat they use most is, that if they work for me they can never work in any other shop in the United States. They will guarantee them a job at \$3.50 per day. They have a carriage ready to take them away to some other town. They won't threaten to shoot them but will show a revolver, and tell about there being a pill there. I never heard this said myself, but have been so told. One man has been on guard most of the time. He is said to be paid by the day. As I was not now hiring Crispins, I called back a young man who had been turned off some months before at the demand of the Crispins. His father was a journeyman tailor. They went to him to have his son taken away. He refused. Then they went to the tailor's employer to get him to turn the father off, threatening injury to his business. I am employing about sixty hands. Many of them are Crispins, but none in good standing. Most are Americans. Could get no foreigners after the trouble. Had to hire new or "green" hands also,—many of them being from Maine. These men are not absolutely molested, though they are hooted at and kept out of societies as much as possible. For a long time it was impossible for me to get them boarded. At last I got a man who had a large house to take them all in. For those with families I built a tenement house close to my shops. There are six tenements in it. They (the Crispins) would try to injure the business of any man who spoke in my favor. They would withdraw their trade, and try and get others to do so. One man whom they charged with saying he would do what he could to sustain me, but who had not said so, they tried to injure by opening a store near him in the same business. A man who dealt in ready-made clothing put two of his boys into my shop. They went to him and told him they should do all they could to injure his trade. Some of them stationed themselves on my land, where they could watch the shop of another firm with whom they were having some trouble. I did not interfere. There are twenty-three other manufacturers. Since my trouble, we have all been in the habit of meeting together occasionally for consultation. Until this time there had been no meeting for two years. Our organization then broke up in a sort of row. The workmen have fixed the prices for the last two years. At the opening of a season they would lay off perhaps two weeks, and then the manu-

facturers would accede to their terms. On these prices, business has been carried on successfully, as a general thing. The main objection has been that young men attempting to start business have not succeeded. There have been a number of such failures. The new men had to pay the same or higher wages, but could not use their help to the same advantage. I do not know that discrimination was purposely made against these new manufacturers, or if so, what gain would come thereby. Before this trouble, I think they had as good an opinion of me as of any manufacturer. I never had trouble with, or received insult from them. All they say now is that they are bound to ruin my business. Since the trouble began I have had words with only one man; though the men who went out have bought wood and other things of me. The other manufacturers have not aided, except by patting me on the back and telling me to stick it out. None of them have had any trouble since mine commenced, though quite common before. The Crispins seem to have reserved all their strength for me. I do not know that any manufacturer in the place has profited by the injury to my business. I have manufactured about two-thirds the usual quantity of goods since the trouble began. I make up a cheaper article also. The Crispins give me credit for having paid as good prices as any man in town. I have never said I wouldn't hire Crispins; but I won't recognize that I have got to ask them if I may keep certain men in my shop.

TESTIMONY OF JOHN RAFFERTY.

I was in Mr. Howe's employ at the time of the difficulty. I think it was the latter part of April when he wanted to know if we were going to strike against men in his shop. I told him I didn't know anything about it; but if he had any communication to make to the lodge, I would be happy to carry it for him. (Other manufacturers doing a larger business than he, were in the habit of communicating in that way.) "Well," said he, "I wish you would speak to them next Saturday night." That was on Thursday. He had a good deal to say about the rights of the thing,—the oppression of the Crispin organization, etc. I did my best to talk the other way. Both of us were friendly and free from excitement. He charged that the Crispins were going to strike against William Gates, one of his workmen, because he owed back dues, and said he would starve before he turned him off. The lodge instructed me to tell him that if he had any communication to make, they would like to have him put it in writing. They wanted something more reliable than a verbal message. I delivered the message, and Monday morning he

sent for me. I went to the office, and he said he had no communication to make. One or two of the men got out of work, and he told them he would give them no more until the trouble was settled,—until they would promise not to strike against him. He also said, “I will give ten dollars to every Crispin in my employ to leave me and not bother me.” I said to him, “Mr. Howe, the Crispins in your shop want no trouble with you; they will leave you without any money.” “Well,” said he, “you can’t have any work.” As we couldn’t get any work we left him. Of course we could make him no promise, as we didn’t know but his demand was a blind for something else. When I delivered the verbal message from the lodge I said, “If the Crispins have any trouble with you they will give you timely warning.” As some of the men got out of work and could get no more, the rest said to themselves: “Well, we had better leave off and go out together, as he will be coaxing some of the last ones to stay, and he would have more influence over a few than over all.” We had a shop’s meeting to settle it by vote. We voted to leave, and went out on Monday noon. He had plenty of work to give us, and we were earning good wages. We didn’t know but there would be a settlement, and that we should go to work again, so we left our tools. When men went to him for a job, he demanded the same promise as of us, and gave out that he didn’t want any Crispins to work for him. Only one or two who came out with us went back again. Think one was bought back by higher pay. None of Mr. Howe’s help have been injured or assaulted by those who went out. I have never done anything to injure Mr. Howe’s business, and would not, if I could. There is a man employed by the Crispin organization to talk to men who apply to Mr. Howe for work, and influence them not to go into his employ. His station is on the street in front of Mr. Howe’s shop. I consider the strike as virtually ended, since Mr. Howe is manufacturing and all of us have got work. The strike was a bad thing for me. Was making good wages. With a family to support, I was out of work a little over four weeks. Received some assistance from the lodge. I found difficulty in getting employment. Others also found it difficult. When there was a job vacant, the manufacturer would give it to some one from abroad in preference to us. Some of Mr. Howe’s hands did not get work for two months. The first of May Mr. Howe’s firm took in a new partner. A man came and applied to him for a job, when this conversation took place:—

“Are you a Crispin?”

“Yes.”

“Then I can’t give you work.”

"You have more Crispins in your employ than you think for."

"Well, I will get rid of them, then."

The man was refused work. Most of the workmen in Marlborough are Crispins. Think there is an association of manufacturers. Right after this trouble the manufacturers were seen going into a hall together. They seemed to get together, two or three times a week near Mr. Howe's place. Two years ago they had a meeting and issued a printed proclamation to shut up the shops until certain things were complied with. These notices were posted in all the shops. That was before the Crispin lodge was formed. [The circular alluded to bears date March 2, 1868. It is signed by twenty-three firms. It recites that a "Boot and Shoe Makers' Union," exists, with the object of controlling prices and employment, and that it is prejudicial to both employed and employer, and declares (1) that the manufacturers do not recognize it; (2) that they claim the right of making prices and employing help; (3) that on and after the following evening, if workmen fail to resume labor at manufactories where the men have left off work, such bottoming rooms will remain closed.] When I first got employment, after leaving Mr. Howe, I did not earn more than \$1.50 per day, because I took extra pains with my work, in order that there should be no excuse of poor work, for which they would discharge me, as had been done in other cases. Mr. Howe is naturally a good man, but is quick-tempered. He is generous, and willing to help a poor man. We feel that he would not have taken the course he did unless he had been prompted to it by other manufacturers. He would come home from Boston and have a good deal to say about the Crispins. His two partners were opposed to Crispins. The workmen have no objection to him as a man; nor a business man, when he is wholly himself.

TESTIMONY OF JOHN REGAN.

Have worked in Marlborough at shoemaking, for seventeen years. Have worked with Mr. Howe when he was a journeyman, but have never worked for him as an employer. He has been a manufacturer, off and on, for about ten years. Two years and a half ago, we were working for \$1.10 per day. There were four of us in my family. It cost me almost \$1.25 per day to live, which was very cheap, because I had a place of several acres out of town, on which I was paying \$100 per year and interest. Many of us thought we had got to do something if we expected living wages. This was before the Crispin association was thought of. We formed a union of the bottomers and finishers, and got in all who would pay

the initiation fee, and then admitted the rest free. This was in October. In March we drew up what we thought was a fair list of prices for our work, and chose a committee to put this list in the office of every manufacturer in town. We did not expect to get our prices, but did suppose we should get more than we were having. I was on this committee. Some manufacturers gave us the cold shoulder, and told us they did not want us there. Some sat down and argued with us. The result was we were completely ignored. We could get no conference or compromise. They said we had no rights at all in the matter. So we struck in two shops, in different parts of the town. Then the manufacturers formed an association, and issued circulars. Every shop in town shut down, and employment was refused, under any consideration, to any man belonging to the union. They tried every means, and used every inducement, but they could not break us up. They told us we couldn't get along; that we should be drinking, and fighting in the streets; but there was no trouble. My wife was discharged from one of the shops, because of the prominent part I took, she being told that she would have no work until I came back. Some manufacturers went so far as to ask storekeepers to refuse us credit. Before our organization, if a boss got down on me for anything, I could not get employment in any other shop. We could not say a word. We were followed from shop to shop, and no one would hire us without a recommendation. What drove us into union most, however, was that we could not get money, but were obliged to take store orders. They give orders now. The strike continued four weeks. Meanwhile this order of Knights of St. Crispin had sprung up. At the end of the four weeks one firm yielded and gave us the price we asked, an advance of three or four cents, and then the strike came to an end. For what we were getting \$1.10 we now get \$3, and did have at one time \$3.25. We live decidedly better now than formerly. Before, we could not keep out of debt. This Mr. Howe was one of the most stubborn men we had to deal with at that time. He would not acknowledge the old union; but a little later offered to give us the use of his team to go to Ashland, and organize as Knights of St. Crispin. About a year ago there was a slight trouble among his hands. It was soon over, and things have run smoothly until this last affair. There had not been a word said at the time Mr. Howe sent the message he did to the lodge about striking or trouble, any way,—not a word in or out of the lodge, to my knowledge,—nevertheless we knew that the new man who had come into there had said that he would run the shop and get rid of the Crispins after awhile. Mr. Howe encouraged the strike.

When I went there on a committee he said: "I don't care if I don't make a shoe for a month. If they are going to strike at all I want them to strike now. Now is my time." I said, "You had better wait until they do strike?" "No," said he, "I am one of those who always want to take the bull by the horns. Now is my time." Unless the men would bind themselves down, so and so, he said he would not have them back there to work. He gave no satisfaction to the committee appointed by the lodge. Then a committee of three was appointed, one each from the Marlborough, the Hopkinton and the Westborough lodges. The first time he brought up town politics, which were then raging high in the matter of a town hall, he accusing the Crispins of a partisan interest in the matter. I assured him that in the lodge we never said a word about politics. Then he said, "Now I will tell you how I am situated; I have eighteen men who are not Crispins. They say they will not work in a shop with Crispins. I have so many Crispins who say they won't work with so and so. What am I to do? I am informed that after July 1st, the members of your lodge won't work in any shop with anybody not a Crispin." Says I, "That is a lie." Says he, "I have it on good authority." I answered, "I don't care what authority you have; I can prove that it is not so." Then he endeavored to prove by his foreman that we compelled men to join the lodge. I told him that as soon as the lodge compelled a man to join it who didn't want to I should leave it. "Moreover, I don't believe they would ever strike on you." He repeated, that we, as Crispins, would not work with the men he had. I told him again that it was not so. He then said, "I will give them ten dollars apiece if they will take their kits and clear out." "Well," I said, "I don't believe but what the men will take their kits out of the shop;" and they did. After they had done so Mr. Howe went to some of the old hands and offered them big inducements to work in the shop. Then he got reporters there from the Boston and New York papers, who misrepresented nearly everything connected with the affair. They accused us of making assaults, when there was nothing of the sort. There were no assaults unless committed by or through means of the other party. It was told at the time that they got members of the Crispin lodge drunk, and then had them put in the lock-up. I believe, on very good authority, that it was so. It may be said that we have used every means to prevent men from going to work. We have taken no measures which the other party did not take before us. Mr. Howe sent down East for men to work for him. One man brags that last month he earned \$160, and I know he is not a tip-top workman. He has made every

sort of bargain to get men to take our places. Of course under these circumstances we had every right to stop men going to work there, so long as we only used moral suasion. There have been no threats of violence to Mr. Howe or any of his workmen, to my knowledge, certainly none with the sanction of the lodge. There have been rumors and stories enough to the contrary; but they were only rumors. I asked the man whom we blame for carrying so many stories to Mr. Howe, if he told him that after the first of July the Crispins would strike against every man in the shop who was not a member; his answer was: "No, Mr. Howe says a great many things that are not true." Yet, there is not a man whom I think more of, aside from this question, than I do of Mr. Howe. I would do as much for him as any man living. He has a big heart for any one in difficulty. The bosses published a card in the local paper, sustaining Mr. Howe in his course of fighting the Crispin lodge. You can't imagine the influences they, the manufacturers bring to bear upon any man who is against them.

Mr. Samuel Howe testified to the general truthfulness of the statements of the witnesses Rafferty and Regan.

CONCLUSIONS.

This movement seems to partake of mixed elements, each party virtually striking on the other. Mr. Howe inquired of his men, most of whom were Crispins, whether they intended to make his employment of non-Crispins or delinquent Crispins, an occasion of strike, as, if they did, it would suit his convenience to have it done at once. They replied that they must consult their lodge, which he desires should be done. The lodge asked that his inquiry should be put in writing, which he declines. Then, as the men severally get out of material, he does not renew it. At this, all the Crispins in his employ leave; the lodge takes up the strike, keeping him as far as they can from obtaining men. There appears to have been but little personal ill-feeling, Mr. Howe at last obtaining other men, and the old set getting work elsewhere. The methods pursued in the movement resemble, more than any we have known, those of the old guilds of England.

V. STRIKE AT WORCESTER.

At the Quinsigamond Wire Works.

This movement, occurring late in October, 1870, related to methods of work, and was of brief duration. We very greatly regret to say that it was attended with violence. The appended statements were taken at the works of the Washburn & Moen Manufacturing Company, on Grove Street, at Quinsigamond Village, and at the office of the city marshal.

Calling first at the office of the president of the company, he referred us to the following statements from the Worcester "Gazette," as embodying what he should give as testimony:—

"For a week past the laborers in one department of the Washburn & Moen Wire Works in this city have been on a strike, growing out of the following state of facts. A part of the men engaged in wire drawing are paid by the 'piece,' each man's wire being weighed and credited to him daily. Formerly at the Quinsigamond Works the scales on which the wire was weighed stood in a passage in the rear of the workmen, but the room being narrow the scales were in the way of laborers who were continually wheeling wire in the passage, and last spring they were removed to a more convenient location. No objection was made at the time, and no complaints were made till last week Monday, when the workmen notified the president of the company that unless the scales were restored to their old location they should strike. He visited them the next day, heard their statement, and explained the reason of the removal, offering the men to send them a ticket with the weight of their work as soon as each barrow was weighed, and if they distrusted the weigher each man might stop his machine and go and see his work weighed. They were not satisfied, and accordingly quit work, the members of the Wire-Drawers Association at this and the Grove Street shops joining in the strike; some two hundred or more men are thus out of employment.

"The president of the Washburn & Moen Company professes a willingness to arrange matters as satisfactorily as possible, but objects to the workmen dictating the internal arrangements of the works. He refuses to recognize the association or any committee, but is ready to converse with the men who have grievances or who desire to return to work, asking only that such shall promise to have nothing further to do with strikes. The places of the strikers are being rapidly filled with Americans and Germans, help being

unusually abundant just now, and the company are not embarrassed in filling their orders by the strike."

The same paper, under date of Nov. 5, gives the following particulars concerning an assault which occurred during the progress of the strike:—

"Last evening a party of the strikers made a savage assault upon five of the workmen while on their way home. The five men, named Frank Jeffrey, Ezra Robar, Octave Eneaw, Elixis Goli and Michael Arial, left the shop at Quinsigamond Village about six o'clock, yesterday, and started up the track of the Providence Railroad, as usual, on their way to their homes in the city. When near the stone house, just in the edge of the village, they were saluted by a volley of stones, and a dozen or more men made their appearance.

"Thinking discretion the better part of valor, the men started on a run, but Arial was overtaken and knocked down with a bar of iron, and the blow was repeated once or twice after he was down. Finally his assailants left him and he managed to reach home with considerable difficulty.

"Naturally the affair has created considerable excitement among the workmen and others, and Messrs. Washburn & Moen, believing in sustaining those who have continued at work, have offered a reward of \$500 for information that shall insure the conviction of the parties who made the assault."

The president further spoke of the matter to the following effect:—

"Most of the men that went out are now employed. There may be a dozen who were not taken back. Thirty or forty new men were taken on, but a number of them were discharged as incompetent. Think a hundred men participated in the strike. All who were taken back pledged themselves not to strike again for any cause whatever. We are willing at all times to see our individual workmen, but are not disposed to have anything to do with committees. Do not know the names of parties who assaulted the new workmen; names of suspected parties were given, but nothing was proved. The men had a union, which is now broken up. We don't care so give the names of men connected with the affair in our suspicions. We treat our men well and give them good wages."

A VISIT TO THE WORKS,

At Quinsigamond Village, gave the following picture of matters. The first room entered showed the wire-drawers at work along the side of the building at the left of the door of entrance. The passage-way through which the wire was wheeled led from this door straight ahead nearly across the room and then turned at right angles, and passed down into another building, where it was weighed upon the barrow and wheeled along to a place where it went through another process. Back of the wire-drawers and between them and the passage was a row of perpendicular pins or rods over which the coils of wire were thrown when ready for weighing, each man being paid by the amount in weight of work done. When ready for weighing the barrow is rolled up, and the wire taken from the pins, put on it and wheeled away, and a memorandum check of the amount returned to the workman. The old custom was to weigh on movable scales in plain sight of the laborers themselves, the amount being taken down at the time by both weigher and workmen. The workmen do not follow the wire and actually witness the weighing on account of losing time by it, but are privileged to do so. One reason for the change made last spring has already been given: that the passage became too much crowded and obstructed by the passing barrows and scales. It was further remarked by the agent on the ground, that the workmen were suspected of passing wire from a pin of weighed to one of unweighed wire, and so getting an increase of weight by fraudulent means. Under the new custom frequent complaints were made by the workmen that they were not credited with the full weight of work done, and that at least in one case, a whole barrow load had been moved away and not weighed at all; also, that while the barrows were of varying weight, that of the heaviest barrow was always taken as a standard—making a difference of nine pounds in favor of the company. These things led to a request or demand for the re-establishment of the old system, with the alternative of a strike in case of non compliance. The company refused, but offered to provide acceptable safeguards in connection with the weighing, and to redress any real grievance through which the men were defrauded. The changes promised were carried out, and everything has since been quiet. The general appearance of

of the men showed a high order of muscular endowment, without any indication of a corresponding mental or moral development. The general rule as to hours of labor appeared to be *seventy-seven* per week. Very extensive new works and sumptuous office surroundings indicated the material prosperity of the company.

TESTIMONY OF THE CITY MARSHAL.

During the strike the workmen were much excited over the talk of having Chinamen hired on in their places. Some French were taken on at Quinsigamond. One of them came to me and said he had been threatened that unless he quit work something would happen. He wished my consent to carrying arms. I told him he could do so if necessary in self-defence, but he must be circumspect in their use. The next or the second day after, five of these new men came out upon the Providence Railroad track, which runs by the yard, and started for the city. This was about six o'clock on the evening of November 4. After going a little way towards the city, a number of men sprang out of the brush on either side of the track and closed in upon the party. The Frenchman (the old man who came to me for permission to arm) started to run back. He was assaulted with clubs and pieces of gas-piping, and received a severe bruising, being also thrown down and kicked. In this state one of the assaulters, striking him, says, "You have had warning enough not to work; take that,"—and continued his pommelling. After some kicks when down, the man meanwhile feigning death, three or four of the assaulters came up and called off their comrades by saying the Frenchman had "got enough." Another of the workmen started toward the water on one side of the track and was pursued and struck with a club. The others took to their heels and were chased, but made their escape. Those that did so came to the city that evening and reported to me, making their complaint. The next morning the proprietors came and made complaint also. Considerable excitement prevailed on account of such an assault upon innocent men returning from their work. I set to work at once to make an examination. A description was given me of the leaders of the strike and of persons suspected as likely to commit violence. The Frenchman described the men whom he saw as well as he could. Several arrests were made; eleven in all. Most of them were strikers and Irishmen,—one was a Scotchman. The one whose identity seemed most perfect was not a worker in the wire-drawing department, but was a rolling-mill hand. It was

found that he was at work in the mill at the time of the assault, and so could not have been in the *mêlée*. His foreman so testified. At the trial all were discharged. It was testified of one by the complainants that they thought him the man, but he was given the benefit of the doubt. Some of the parties arrested have been re-employed, among them the president of the association. I sent for the officers and told them that their striking was not a matter of my concern so long as the laws were not violated, but urged them if they had any influence to use it to prevent personal violence. The moment they proceeded to violence they placed themselves in a belligerent attitude, and would have to be arrested. The company offered a reward for the arrest of the assaulters; the city did not. Four or five of the parties taken up had been arrested before for drunkenness or fighting. So far as I know, the officers of the association are good and law-abiding citizens. I did not wish to bring into court any more parties than it was necessary. The cases were not brought up for trial so soon, by a week or ten days, as they would have been had not the man most seriously wounded been so badly injured as to be unable to appear. Have known of no other strike at the same mill. There was a strike some years ago among the hod-carriers, who had an association, and last winter among the Crispins, from whom some arrests were made, but there had never been anything so cowardly or brutal as in this affair. These Frenchmen were illiterate; some of them could not speak English at all. The wire-drawers, through their officers, published a card in the newspapers discountenancing all violence. It was so published at my suggestion.

CONCLUSIONS.

This strike seems to have been for trivial cause, and also to have been entered upon several months after the change in usage had been made, which was considered so obnoxious. The machinery depended upon to make the strike effective, was a trades-union composed of workmen belonging to the two establishments of the corporation in Worcester, and which, up to this time, had not revealed itself in any overt manner to the company. The strike was characterized by some crudeness of method, great harshness of expedient and unjustifiable violence. Doubtless the *émeute* was intended as a mere preliminary skirmish, for the sake of testing whether it was possible for them as working-men to improve their condition by combination. Such combination, of course, pre-supposes in the minds

of those who combine ideas of oppression or abuse. The result of the strike was the overthrow of the union and the throwing of some of its leaders out of employment. It was not our fortune to come in contact with any of the leaders of the strike or prominent members of the union.

VI. STRIKE AT WEYMOUTH.

This strike occurred among Americans exclusively. It commenced July 1, 1870, and came to an end early in February of the present year by the defeat of the workmen. Some of its features are quite peculiar. The strike had for its object the maintenance of a scale of wages previously established by associations of working-men in this branch of business.

TESTIMONY OF NAHUM STETSON.

Am treasurer of the Weymouth Iron Company. May 1, 1870, we reduced the pay of our nailers and puddlers at Weymouth, Wareham and Providence, ten per cent. They continued working, but in June the nailers gave notice that they should not work after July 1st, unless prices were put back as before the reduction. Was led to make the reduction in the first place because a month before there had been a reduction of twelve and a half per cent. at Boonton and Oxford, N. J., and our men have always been willing to work for the prices paid at Boonton. They accepted the Boonton standard in case of a strike four years ago. We took the initiative in the matter of reduction in this section, but were followed at once, or very soon, by the manufacturers in Taunton, Fall River, Somerset and East Bridgewater. In these places the nailers continued work at the reduction. July 1st, the nailers in our three works went out, and the mills have since been at a stand-still. There has been no cessation at the works of other parties. The Agawam Company continued at the old prices because they had not capital enough to stop work and contest the matter. We insisted upon the reduction also, because we found that we were losing money in making nails, and could not continue old prices and compete with other parties in the same business. We understand that the men in other places where they are working at a reduction, are contributing money to our nailers, so that if successful with us they may be able to recover old prices themselves. We make more nails than any other party, and if they break us down the rest will yield. At Weymouth and Wareham together, we have 160 machines, requiring the attendance of some fifty-five nailers, who

are now the only parties blocking the wheels, as the other kinds of help are ready to work. They have unions. Communication is held between ourselves and them by letter. Letters coming to us are signed "Nailers;" ours addressed to them are also sent to "Nailers." The unions aim to control the matter of wages, and, to a considerable extent, apprentices and the exclusion of foreigners. Boss nailers hire their own plate-turners and boys. The trade is not a specially difficult one to learn. At Wareham we have commenced work. We gave notice that on Monday, December 5, our mill would start if with only one machine. Those who wanted to go to work then could do so; those who refused to appear at their machines would receive no further employment from the company. We now have twenty machines at work. Our superintendents look after the machines and instruct the plate-turners and boys. We have to teach new help. No old nailers are working. Before the reduction prices had remained pretty stationary for four or five years. Wages earned (net) vary with the number of machines run. Two machines, \$2.50 per day; three machines, \$3; four machines, \$3.50. For what we paid fourteen cents in 1858, we have been paying twenty-four cents, and now offer twenty-two cents. There was a general strike in 1864-5, commencing November 12, 1864, and ending March 1, 1865. At one point they succeeded in teaching new hands, and the strike came to an end. The movement then was for an increase of twenty-five per cent. in wages. The nailers went to work after seventeen weeks at the old rates.

TESTIMONY OF GEORGE MITCHELL.

Nailers are paid by the hundred. This strike is an effort to maintain our established ticket price; is a strike for the restoration of former wages. When we submitted to a reduction, Mr. Stetson claimed that it was necessary because the company had met with losses. He wanted us to take up with the reduction until they could do better. The works commenced running February 1st. The reduction was made May 1st, and lasted till July 1st. Up to May 1st we worked on the old scale. When we asked for its restoration Mr. Stetson said no; and further, that he had it under consideration to make a still greater reduction. We replied that we could not work any longer at the present wages, and gave our two weeks' notice. The time expired July 1, and the works stopped at that date. The works had been interrupted for eight months by the fire, prior to February 1. The ticket of prices we wished maintained had been adopted by a common agreement among the nailers of the State, some five years before. The ticket price had not

been receded from in any place up to this time (July 1), except for two months, about two years before, in East Bridgewater and Fall River, after which it was restored. The agent has said since that he was not now contending for dollars and cents; we suppose it is for the purpose of breaking up our organization. We have nailers' unions in seven places, and tack-makers' unions in two places; the former in Fall River, East Weymouth, Somerset, Wareham, Plymouth, East Bridgewater and East Taunton; the latter in Taunton and Abington. The example of the Weymouth Iron Company in asking a 10 per cent. reduction was followed by the owners in other places. The "dock" at East Bridgewater and Plymouth was made about the same time as in Weymouth. In both places the reduction was accepted and has continued. The "dock" at Somerset and Fall River took place about the middle of August. It was accepted there and has continued. The reason why we think the demand was made upon us with the intent of breaking up our organization is this: Notice was given two weeks before May 1st, that at that date there would be a reduction of ten per cent. in the wages of all the employés. All alike protested,—the puddlers, nailers, laborers, packers, etc.; but all but the puddlers and nailers were told that it would be made all right with them if work continued. Indeed, the main cause of our dissatisfaction in the reduction after the works began, was in the fact that the other classes of employés were exempt from it. Of the ten nailing mills in the State, five are at work on a "dock," three on the old ticket, and two are now contesting the matter. The three at work as formerly are in Wareham. In our works at Weymouth there are some twenty-eight nailers. Work is not furnished us steadily. Think, taking a number of years together, we lose, from stopping, about four months in a year. They often stop in the summer time from the lack of water. If there had been no strike, we should have lost most of this season from that cause. Think the net wages of boss nailers in the working season about \$3 a day; second hands earn about \$1.50 per day.

TESTIMONY OF HENRY FLETCHER.

Our nailers do not have work, on an average, more than eight months in a year. Sometimes we are out six months. Know only one case where we worked steadily for two years. The best hands will earn in busy times from \$20 to \$25 a week. The wages fluctuate between \$10 and \$25, according to experience at the business, or the regular or irregular supply of plate, the former consideration being important as showing the number of machines a

person can run. When we were out of regular work formerly, it was very difficult to get anything to do. There was a prejudice against us, especially among mechanics, who thought we had a soft job; and that when idle on compulsion we had no right to work at anything else, as we were taking bread from their mouths. Since the organization of the Crispins that feeling has disappeared, and given place to a more fraternal one. We earn wages somewhat according to the number of machines we can run. On one machine \$10 a week would be earned; on two \$14; on three \$17.50; on four \$20. The boss nailers are responsible for their helpers, and also for grinding and keeping machines in order. Our main object is to keep up uniform prices. When business was so profitable that 40 and 50 per cent. dividends were declared, we did not ask for an advance. Our trade is one that takes a long time to learn. It takes a year and a half to learn to run one machine. Some of us spent seven years in learning the trade. *We aim to keep our business affairs to ourselves. We do not go near the works, neither do we gather on the streets, or in the stores, to talk over trade matters. We avoid all publicity, and never make any noise about our affairs.*

VII. STRIKE AT RANDOLPH.

This strike was by workmen, a part of whom are employed under the old method (as distinguished from the factory method), of taking material from the employer to be made up at the workmen's home. It was a lodge strike, and had for its object an increase of wages. A. W. WHITCOMB, manufacturer of men's and boys' boots, testifies as follows:—

There was a strike in my establishment from May 17th to June 17th of the present year. Last fall I had a good run of orders, and paid my men wages higher than the current rate. Up to January 1st, I paid \$6 per case, and paid it cheerfully; and that for both kinds of work, made for two different kinds of trade. After that time I found I was not going to want so many of either sort, and so offered \$5 for making one, and \$5.50 for making another kind. At this reduction my workmen, with few exceptions, left me. In a short time those who had left began to come back to work, and I got all the hands I wanted. May 1st had a talk with my foreman, and concluded to put up the price of one kind to \$5.50, and of the other to \$6. This was about the price I wanted to establish, and under it all went to work. Somehow they got an idea in the lodge that I was not paying as much as I ought, and so the matter

was brought before them, the lodge voting that I ought to pay \$6 for all kinds. My men opposed this action. On the Tuesday following, the lodge held another meeting. My workmen went there, but held a meeting by themselves in the anteroom, voted to keep at work, and reported to the lodge that they were satisfied. The lodge said no, and my men yielded, and reported the action of the lodge to me. I told them I should not pay it, and all quit. Some asked me what they should do. I answered that I did not see but they would have to quit, if they intended to submit to what they did not think was right. The lodge voted \$9 a week to those with families, and \$6 to those without. I ascertained what amount of funds were in the treasury, and saw that the money would not last long. In three weeks they voted not to pay them any longer. I asked them what they were going to do. They said they were going to work,—should do it anyhow. I let them lie by another week, and then all hands went to work at the price I was willing to pay all the time—\$5.50 and \$6. My difficulty was not with my men, but with the lodge. The lodge wanted to raise the price of one kind fifty cents a case above the price paid by others making the same kind. My boots are all hand-pegged. Hand and machine pegging are paid differently. Presume that in taking up the idea that I was not paying enough, allowance was not made in this respect. I consulted with others in the same business in Weymouth, and found I was paying more than they. Half my work is taken out of the shop to do. I give out work through the year, but not so much at some seasons as at others. The men who take work out hire their own help. At the time of the strike, I told my men that they could keep at work until they should have time to take the matter before the Grand Lodge. If the Grand Lodge should say that I was in the wrong, I would pay the \$6. My proposal was rejected as contrary to the rules of the society. Some of the men have worked for me for fifteen years, and knew that I never deceived them. Some of them have said since, that it would be a long day before they went into anything of the sort again. Our manufacturers in town have no meetings for consultation. Each looks out for himself. There is a friendly confidence between myself and my workmen. I told them I had no hard feeling towards them, but thought they belittled themselves by allowing others to meddle with their own affairs, and that if they had dealt directly with me, the result would have been different. At the time of the strike had commenced to raise the pay. My custom is to commence with one and then go right

through, sometimes paying a man more when he returns his work than I promised to when he took it out.

VIII. THE NEEDHAM STRIKE.

This strike has special reference to the hosiery trade, and covers many of its details. It is also very interesting as showing the practical workings of a system of arbitration, both here and abroad, with suggestions for improvement in the same.

TESTIMONY OF MARK LEE.

Am a manufacturer of knit goods; commenced working at the business when a child, eight and a half years old, in Derbyshire, England. Left school for work when seven and a half years old, when I had learned to read a little, and to spell a few words. That was in the time of small shops, when the men worked in the house with the masters. Learned the trade of my father, and remained with him until 16. He made wrought cotton hose. Afterwards left him and went to work on gloves and other articles. Worked with 38 journeymen, which was the largest shop I knew of at the time. Came then to this country. Worked in Watertown three years, from 1853 to 1856, and then became a manufacturer in connection with a brother. We have been manufacturing for fourteen years, starting with only one man.

In England, Derby, Nottingham and Leicester are the principal stocking counties. Business was at first mostly done in small shops of from four to ten looms. The large factory movement commenced about 1848. In the small shops there was an average of five journeymen to one apprentice. Apprentices were taken from the poor-houses a good deal; now there are fewer children employed, and these mostly children of the knitters. The master kept his frames, took his apprentices, and they formed a part of his household. Those working could go in or out when they pleased. Those with families could, by the combined work of all, barely make a living. It took very little to start in business. The hosiers found the frames and furnished them to the masters. Some hosiers owned 2,000 frames. They got for their use a shilling a week; their average cost was about £10, which would give 25 per cent. interest. The hosier or manufacturer furnished the cotton, or raw material, charging it to the masters on little pass books. The masters would knit up the goods, take them in and receive a settlement. There are some small masters now, but most of the employers are capitalists, who own their own frames and manufacture their own goods.

New machinery has been introduced in the larger factories, which are run by power. The hand frames are worked by foot and hand. In 1845 there were 40,000 of these frames in England, Germany and America. The same year there were forty-five of the power machines in operation at Cartwright's and Warner's, in Derbyshire, the first that came into general use. They were opposed by the journeymen, and many frames were broken; and the same was true of the improved wide frames that made more at a time. The small masters also were somewhat indignant at the change.

The German manufacturers handle the stocking business differently. The small master there furnishes the cotton. The masters do business in a smaller way than in England. They work on the land in the season for it, and on stockings in winter. Three or four men will work in a shop, and run their own machines, which are cheap affairs, made of wood. Buying the raw material themselves, they sell the manufactured article to capitalists who are in trade. These merchants take the work of different makers, grade it, put articles of a uniform quality together, under a certain mark, and sell them. The factory system is not known in Germany; they manufacture there mostly cotton hose. Ninety-five per cent. of the cotton hose imported to this country comes from Germany.

The business is a very complicated one. We make fancy hose in which six and seven colors are used, and the pay is by the piece, so much a color. It is more difficult to knit an article with many colors; it is slower work, and requires a better, more experienced man. We make a great many goods in the white; this work is called one-ended. These goods may be colored afterwards. Six-colored goods are often called six-ended; they work these with six threads. Different kinds of work call for different adjustments of wages. Our competition is mostly domestic. The goods are seasonable; these we make now are sold next August and September. Before we make up, we have to see what yarn is going to be a pound, and what the prospect is as to future prices. If many goods are left over for a season, we have to be careful about manufacturing for another year.

Our knitters have not been at work since October. The trouble is generally spoken of as a strike, but it hardly seems so in our case. A year ago we determined to stop work early this fall, though we usually have run through the winter. We felt that the fall in gold would cause a reduction in wool, and hence in goods; for these reasons we concluded to wait. When we stopped, a paper was brought us, signed by three other prominent manufacturers, proposing a reduction of wages, the largest reduction, 35 per cent., being

on seven-colored goods. The proposition was to pay five cents a color for each extra color. We had been paying ten cents a color; in some cases more. The smallest reduction, five per cent., was on white, or one-ended work. The reduction was to be in force until May 1, and then we were to go on as we were. We signed the paper, not especially because we deemed it right, but because we were going to stop, any way, for reasons already given, and because of changes in buildings and machinery. No previous communication in the matter had been had with the workmen; but the paper, when signed, was to be sent to their secretary. Usually such matters had been arranged by consultation between employers and employés, through a board of arbitration. They understood the course taken to be a breach of custom, and one detrimental to them; so they went out, and have remained out ever since. The workmen felt insulted because we did not lay this matter before them, and talk with them face to face about it. It is now a sort of lock out, each waiting for the other. Some of the manufacturers are not ready to work now at any price. Many of the men have gone to work as common laborers, shovelling gravel, at \$1.75 and \$1.50 a day.

The board of arbitration spoken of, was organized three or four years ago. Mr. Thomas Dalby, a manufacturer, was chairman; the journeymen had a secretary, and I was secretary for the manufacturers. Only the journeymen stocking knitters were represented; knitters working on hoods, scarfs, jackets, etc., were not included. Meetings were held in Boston, at a room in some hotel. If there was trouble on the manufacturers' side, word would be sent to the journeymen appointing a meeting; if the journeymen had a grievance, they would write us and ask for a meeting. When assembled we talked matters over and came to an agreement. Regular meetings were held every fall and spring. There has been no trouble in its working until lately. When the board was established there was an adjustment of prices, which amounted on the whole to a reduction. Both parties assented. Two years later the men asked for an advance of ten per cent., owing to an upward movement in prices and the increased cost of living. We met in Boston, and agreed to give them five per cent., and that is the only change there has been. This five per cent. only applied to white work, or ground work. Some slight alterations have been made from time to time in perfecting the scale. The present trouble ought to have been brought before the same board. When the advance was given, I was in favor of it, because I knew the knitters well, and was sure they would strike. Very few of the manufacturers, however, were in favor of the advance, and I felt that they blamed me for raising

prices. Indeed, I have been accused a number of times of holding up the men's work. The board has since been broken up. The manufacturers dropped it, and I think they did wrong. The workmen have not requested that it may be called together, because they understand that it is broken up. They judge so by the way they were informed of the last reduction. There was a meeting of the manufacturers in Boston at the time of the reduction, but there has been no meeting of the board since the advance of five per cent. Our firm has been satisfied with the action of the board. There have been no strikes since it has been in operation. Think the system would do away with strikes. There is some difficulty in getting both parties to abide by its decisions or rules. For instance, it is agreed that all shall pay, and all be paid, according to the scale of prices. A manufacturer gets a little behind, and is tempted to pay higher wages in order to get more done; while a workman, in a dull time, might offer to work for less than the scale rather than wait for work to start up generally. Still it would not be very difficult, as a general thing, to maintain harmony. I should like to see the system permanently established. Should like a board where there was more dignity than in the one I have been connected with. The manufacturers should be criticised in their statements as well as the journeymen. Employers and employed should meet before the Chief of the Bureau of Labor as an umpire. Would favor the authorization of such a method by the State.

In our firm we have concluded that we should never offer the men a reduction again. If we could not make the work go, we would stop, and wait for the men to bring in proposals. Our new factory is nearly completed. When we are ready to go ahead, we propose to make terms satisfactory to the men and to us.

In England I belonged to a trade-union, and was in favor of it all the time—was what is called a "thick member." It was a resisting union, and not a benefit society. From experience, I don't think much good came of them. The wrought hose hands were on a strike once, for thirteen weeks, with unfavorable result. The glove hands once turned out for a number of weeks for an advance of six cents a dozen, and they went in at a reduction of six cents. Trade-unions seemed to be very good when business is brisk; but when business was bad there were always men enough that gave way, and went back to work at a less price. Don't think they proved of benefit to me, either socially, morally or educationally. Discussions in them all went one-sided. Still I believed in them, and after coming to this country joined one, and was on a committee that drew up the first statement of prices in Massachusetts.

When ready, as manufacturers, to go to work, our expenses would require that we should have our machinery employed. We should feel the pressure of a stoppage very soon; and individually, if business came to a stand-still, in two or three years. The workman would feel such a stoppage at once. Until this time we have not stopped more than two months in four years.

As to wages in the stocking business, here is a table giving the figures in one shop for nine months in the same year. (Presented by Mr. Lee.)

T A B L E .

K N I T T E R .	No.	Average of each man, per Month.									
		January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	
.	1,	\$58 00	\$43 00	\$70 00	\$53 00	\$48 00	\$53 00	\$74 00	\$68 00	\$30 00	\$55 00
.	2,	53 00	66 00	74 00	67 00	67 00	56 00	65 00	67 00	61 00	64 00
.	3,	40 00	30 00	25 00	36 00	30 00	35 00	42 00	33 00	35 00	34 00
.	4,	56 00	60 00	68 00	94 00	81 00	81 00	92 00	84 00	95 00	79 00
.	5,	30 00	29 00	28 00	30 00	26 00	19 00	14 00	25 00	55 00	28 50
.	6,	22 00	18 00	11 00	80 00	75 00	29 00	73 00	68 00	69 00	49 00
.	7,	41 00	61 00	74 00	41 00	36 00	56 00	75 00	67 00	22 00	52 50
.	8,	39 00	36 00	65 00	39 00	48 00	43 00	44 00	41 00	20 00	42 00
.	9,	35 00	29 00	61 00	27 00	27 00	32 00	32 00	34 00	31 00	36 50
.	10,	52 00	45 00	35 00	33 00	36 00	23 00	17 00	36 00	30 00	32 00
.	11,	52 00	49 00	44 00	45 00	45 00	40 00	50 00	47 00	27 00	45 50
.	12,	48 00	43 00	51 00	43 00	54 00	46 00	48 00	47 00	26 00	45 00
.	13,	21 00	36 00	40 00	39 00	34 00	20 00	17 00	24 00	38 00	30 00
.	14,	40 00	37 00	33 00	27 00	40 00	34 00	36 00	36 00	28 00	33 50
.	15,	41 00	33 00	40 00	47 00	47 00	38 00	49 00	41 00	28 00	42 00
.	16,	41 00	30 00	50 00	35 00	38 00	39 00	44 00	41 00	30 00	37 50
.	17,	48 00	33 00	40 00	43 00	46 00	32 00	40 00	35 00	17 00	37 00
.	18,	61 00	38 00	45 00	56 00	63 00	52 00	56 00	46 00	22 00	48 50
.	19,	48 00	52 00	66 00	45 00	46 00	40 00	45 00	30 00	13 00	54 00
.	20,	49 00	31 00	43 00	53 00	60 00	25 00	45 00	26 00	51 00	42 50
.	21,	42 00	69 00	63 00	26 00	26 00	23 00	32 00	21 00	48 00	39 00
.	22,	12 00	17 00	46 00	30 00	44 00	35 00	42 00	32 00	28 00	32 00
.	23,	38 00	31 00	28 00	28 00	37 00	14 00	30 00	62 00	20 00	42 00
.	24,	27 00	29 00	34 00	42 00	60 00	37 00	63 00	45 00	-	44 50
.	25,	50 00	51 00	58 00	43 00	61 00	24 00	20 00	48 00	-	

TABLE—Continued.

K N I T T E R.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	Average of each man, per Month.
No. 26,	\$45 00	\$42 00	\$50 00	\$32 00	\$44 00	\$63 00	\$52 00	\$27 00	-	\$45 00
27,	51 00	57 00	25 00	50 00	36 00	32 00	31 00	26 00	-	38 50
28,	65 00	56 00	58 00	70 00	48 00	60 00	42 00	86 00	-	60 50
29,	50 00	40 00	30 00	39 00	60 00	22 00	40 00	42 00	-	40 50
30,	-	-	55 00	-	40 00	25 00	30 00	-	-	37 50
31,	-	-	50 00	-	70 00	69 00	63 00	-	-	63 00
32,	-	-	28 00	-	-	29 00	44 00	-	-	34 00
33,	-	-	-	-	-	31 00	-	-	-	31 00
Totals,	\$1,255 00	\$1,191 00	\$1,488 00	\$1,293 00	\$1,473 00	\$1,257 00	\$1,447 00	\$1,285 00	\$814 00	-
Men, . . .	29	29	32	29	31	33	32	29	23	-
Average of each month, . . . }	\$43 50	\$41 00	\$46 50	\$44 50	\$47 50	\$38 00	\$45 25	\$44 37	\$35 37	-

The character of the knitters is at a low ebb for sobriety and intelligence. There are a great many drinking men among them. Most are English and given to beer-drinking. They are more unsteady than people in other business. There are a great many tramps; these come and stay a little while and then leave, sometimes going back to England. The factory system is far ahead of the home system in manufacturing, as a promoter of morals and a suppresser of intemperance. The factory system is one of restriction: the home system was one of license as to hours. The main cause of their intemperance is a want of good mothers. Men in the trade live to a good age; think the average age of the men about forty; it is a healthy business.

The average age of commencing work is eleven years; not at as young an age as formerly. The children commence at home by winding and by seaming stockings; they are none of them under ten years of age, and are employed from fifty to sixty hours per week. *If the power was in my own hands, would not have the children work in the factory until sixteen years old, and would keep them at school until then.* Have not known of the State law concerning the hours and schooling of children. The school committee have never called attention to it with us; it would be well for them to do so.

I have always advocated that in this country the manufacturers should not, as in England, own whole villages and the workmen own nothing. I have always urged that workingmen should own their own homes. More do so now with us than in England. I have noticed that ownership of property makes better men and better citizens. We have courses of lectures in the place; the laboring men attend them, and specially enjoy them when the lectures are upon practical matters—chemistry, the analysis of water, and other physical subjects. Those who become permanent citizens, pay their debts much better than the unsteady ones; the storekeepers have many bad debts among the latter class. Most attend church and send their children to Sunday School. The village reading room and library is well patronized; but is only open Friday evenings. There is a temperance division and many belong to it.

TESTIMONY OF SAMUEL HUDSON.

Am a journeyman knitter of English birth. In order to get a correct idea of the present knitters' strike, or lock out, it is necessary to go back three years.

In the fall of 1867 one of the manufacturers, who had run well

through the summer and sold out his goods, wanted we should keep right on, but pay him back 25 per cent. of our wages. The business was then somewhat flat, and the men, knowing this, were inclined to accept the offer, though reluctantly, as we were not getting pay enough as it was. A meeting of the owners was then called, and this manufacturer was induced to retrace his steps. The masters at this juncture offered a reduction, and a meeting of the men of the trade was called, at which it was agreed not to accept the abatement; at the same time we proposed a board of arbitration to settle this and other disputes, the board to consist of an equal number of masters and workmen, and its decision to be final. At our trade meetings we expressed a willingness to go down $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. upon given colors; on others we would come down to 30, and others to 20 per cent. The board was formed, the masters assenting. In the mean time the masters had agreed among themselves to a reduction which amounted to about 18 per cent. in the aggregate. The board decided to go down, and two of each side drew up the statement or scale. The men assented to the reduction upon the promise that if we accepted, the employers would give an advance when trade was good and a favorable opportunity offered itself. The men went to work at the reduced rates, but not until most of them had been kept out from October till the following February. We went on pretty smooth till the next fall, when another reduction was spoken of as likely to be asked for; but as one mill ran on full speed right through the winter, the other masters did not ask the reduction, but kept their workmen at the point of starvation for three months during the winter season. In May, 1869, the workmen thought trade was good, and that the time had come for the advance promised, so they asked for ten per cent. The board met, and, after discussion and conference, agreed to an advance of five per cent. One manufacturer, as before, ran his mill through this second winter, while the rest paid the price but went on sparingly. An average of two months' wages were lost that winter. In October, 1869, the men agreed to ask the masters for some alteration in the price of "feet," a branch of the trade that was paid worse than any other. This was with a view to the regular meeting of the board on the first Monday in November. Meanwhile the masters held a meeting in Boston, unknown to the men, and four days previous to the time for the board to meet, sent a document to us asking a reduction of ten per cent. We voted not to accept it, and requested a settlement by arbitration. At this point we were told that the board had broken up. This placed us in a bad fix and made us feel that we

had been deceived, as we knew of no disaffection, and supposed the masters were satisfied with the plan. We have since understood that the board was destroyed. We had always wished it to continue, even though it was imperfectly constituted, because we thought good would come of it. When the masters found we would not yield to a reduction, they held another meeting and sent us the following document:—

“GENTLEMEN:—We would respectfully ask you, as a body of men knowing the state of the money market at the present time, and the general tendency to discourage manufacturers, to make some propositions yourselves whereby we shall feel justified in running full time and speed through the winter.

“We do not propose to offer anything ourselves, but trust that you, knowing the state of trade, and knowing also that we are willing to do whatever is just and right, will propose something which will justify us in running full through the winter.

“You will please report by Wednesday evening, and oblige.”

This document was also rejected by the workmen, and after several weeks' loafing, we finally got to work at three months' pay.

In October, this year (1870), the workmen were surprised at receiving the following document from the masters:—

“TO THE WORKMEN IN THE HOSIERY MANUFACTURE:—We, the undersigned, being the manufacturers of this class of goods, find that the business is in such condition that we cannot afford to pay the prices we are now paying, and we propose the following alterations in prices, viz.: A reduction of twenty-five per cent. off, on all striped work above the white price, and the statement to be as it now is without any five per cent. added; also that we cannot manufacture and hold goods to be sold the next August and September, the facilities of transportation being such that buyers do not buy as early as formerly; and we propose a discount of five per cent. for the six months, say, from December 1st to June 1st, and then put the five per cent. on for the other six months; also we find that gloves, mittens and gaiters are being made at this time ten per cent. off from statement price, and we propose a discount of ten per cent. off, also the five per cent. off from December 1st to June 1st, same as other work.”

When the above document was received by the men, they immediately called a meeting of the trade, at which the following resolutions were prepared, and signed by every man:—

RESOLUTIONS.

First. Considering the present condition of the trade, the offered reduction is entirely unnecessary and uncalled for, and we therefore decline to work at the proposed reduction.

Second. It would be unwise and unjust to leave the work in halves, and therefore, be it resolved, that all workmen who can get the statement price for work, go and do it.

We went in and finished up the orders, and then came out. Some of us have now been out for ten weeks. There has been no disturbance; indeed, it has been the most quiet and peaceable strike I have ever seen. The way it stands now is this: If they get ready first, they will pay the old price; if we are ready to go to work first, we must take their offer. Personally our relations are pleasant. We average \$1.50 per day in wages the year round; we are losing about that every day of the strike; but we think we are not losing any more in the end than would be lost by working at the reduction. We feel that if we submit now, there will be no hope of getting back our price; if we could see any way to do that we should go back. I know that strikes are detrimental to both masters and men,—don't know to which they are most injurious; but I go with the stream. The men generally have to yield more often than the masters; in some cases the former succeed. Have been in strikes here and abroad; it is the same there as here. Believe the business has been a paying one to the masters, as they have bought machinery, enlarged factories, and invested in real estate.

Doubtless there are losses in this kind of production, and perhaps we should take our share in them. My idea would be a partnership between masters and men. Both would be better able to stand a share of any loss, than to stand a strike. An equitable share of the profit should be set aside for capital, and the rest be assigned to labor. Half the net profit should be divided among the workmen, upon the basis of what they earned under an agreed-upon scale of prices. Have thought of the matter for years; as I think and read the whole subject expands. There is no other just way. The only difficulty is to bring the masters to accept the arrangement.

In England they have of late years established arbitration. Think it was first introduced in 1860. Strikes were common at the time, and wages were so low that many of the operatives had to have help from the parish. Trade was deplorable. There was much anxious discussion as to a remedy. Mr. A. J. Mundella, a manufacturer, broached the idea of a board of arbitration, and called a mixed meeting and presented his views. The men were much pleased and felt confident that good must come of it. It was agreed that the board should consist of an equal number of each party. Mr. M. had the general confidence, and was made president, and a workman vice-president, with a secretary from each party. It was confined

to the trade, and was first local, then took in the county, and was gradually extended to the three neighboring counties. The board sits as judge and jury; its members are chosen at public meetings of each party. No appeal to it is entertained while the men are locked out, or are on a strike. Work must continue, and each party abide the result. If employers not belonging to the board reduced wages of help below the standard, or mistreated them, those belonging to the board would do all they could to employ such help themselves. In a few cases reduction has been ordered, and workmen have been known voluntarily to ask a cut down; but the general result has been the maintenance or advance of wages. Since arbitration was established, wages have been higher than ever before. Have watched the operations of our own board of arbitration. Don't think it can succeed as arranged. None of the controlling masters feel an interest in improving the condition of the workingmen. It was not so with Mr. Mundella. Our masters feel an interest in breaking down wages, and we in bringing them up. There is always antagonism. What is needed is an impartial man at the head,—some one not pecuniarily interested,—say some one appointed by the State. That would be the way.

My father was apprenticed to the business from the poor-house, having been left upon the parish at four years of age. In England the majority do not earn enough to keep off want in old age. They might have children old enough to support them, but with insufficient wages to do so. Hundreds fall back into the workhouse. Have known many such cases; my own parents came from the workhouse and fell back into it.

Have associated with working-men intimately, here and abroad. All can't be masters; it is not expected. A few desire fortune; many wish places of their own—homes; but most only desire to have enough to live upon without work when old. Such is my desire. To do this one would have to begin work when twenty years old and continue at it thirty years, saving \$150 a year, and putting it out at compound interest as fast as saved. This sum is more than a quarter of a man's average earnings at this trade. A man cannot live on our pay and lay aside one dollar out of every four. It is simply impossible.

In our trade we can't depend on steady employment more than nine months in a year. Our average earnings are about \$460 per annum. A family can subsist on that, but can't live very comfortably. When wages were reduced there was no promise of steady employment. Work is no more regular under low than under high wages.

TESTIMONY OF SENTERLOW BUTLER.

Am a knitter of cotton hose, and work in Waltham. There is no strike there now, and has been none since four years ago. The circumstances then were as follows: The "super" called us together and said, as trade was flat, he wished to take off ten per cent. for two months. It was so agreed, but after working a month some began to fear that they would not get the slice back, and so they asked the "super" if they would get it as promised. He made no answer. The men then held a meeting and voted that a week's time should be given the "super" for an answer. None coming back, the men turned out. Three weeks after, and when some of the hands had gone away, the rest were called back and paid the price given before the reduction. There was a reduction when the board of arbitration was established; since then we have gone by the price established by the board. Twelve per cent. more is paid for cotton work, and the business is steady. Some 250 hands are employed. Very few skilled knitters are employed. The system as to hours is $64\frac{1}{2}$ per week,—11 on five days, and $9\frac{1}{2}$ on Saturdays.

Am 38 years old, was born in Nottinghamshire, England, and have been five years in this country. Came here to better my circumstances in the matter of wages, though I could manage to live on what I had there. Had a wife and four children. Work was steady. Earned 26s. a week in 1865, equal to about \$12 United States money in its purchasing power. There were more and cheaper amusements in England than here. Great attention was given to music. The prevalent vice was beer drinking; it wasted money directly, and often caused loss of time at work. We had twelve holidays a year. Rent, fuel, beef and vegetables were cheaper there than here. Am better off now than before, because I have two girls at work in the factory. Two of my children have been to school here, but not all of them can read and write. At home there were not such advantages for education as here. Am earning \$15 per week, and getting ahead a little. Rent five rooms, and pay \$80 a year.

Had a personal acquaintance with the workings of arbitration in England. Was sometimes on committees to confer with the board, and was well satisfied with the system. It might be applied here. One difficulty here is in the lack of steadiness about the parties in the business. There a man was educated to it and spent his life in it. This was true of employers and employed, as a general rule. Here the capitalist goes into it to make money, and leaves it when he can do better. There the father, as an employer, left his prop-

erty and its management to his son. He brought his son up as a workman in the trade.

At time of going to press of these pages of the Report, this strike could not be said to be fully terminated, by reason of causes outside of the movement.

PART II.

Included in this part will be found the results of our various investigations derived from answers, oral and written, to questions upon matters relating to agricultural, commercial, domestic, industrial and mechanical employments.

As has been already said, the blank circulars used were ten in number, relating to the following departments of industry:—

1. AGRICULTURE.
 2. FISHERIES.
 3. BOOT AND SHOE TRADE.
 4. COTTON MANUFACTURES.
 5. WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES.
 6. GENERAL INDUSTRIES.
 7. GENERAL MECHANICAL WORK.
 8. MISCELLANEOUS EMPLOYMENTS.
 - 9 MISCELLANEOUS (SPECIFIED) OCCUPATIONS.
 10. COST OF LIVING.
- WORKMEN'S BLANK.

N. B.—Blanks 4 and 5 differ only in the printed list of occupations. Blank 6 is the same as blank 3, but without the occupations in print. Blank 9 is the same as blank 8, excepting that the occupations are specified. The workmen's blank is the same as blank No. 3 of the year 1869.

Under these heads will be found an account of the present methods of carrying on the business specified, testimony of employers and employed therein, tables of wages, earnings, &c., with comments thereon, and tables from Workmen's blank.

Following this is given oral and written testimony, with investigations upon factory life, hours of labor, the truck-system, coöperation, savings banks, examination of tenement houses, &c.

Employment Classification, with Statistics from Blanks Sent out and Returned.

CLASSIFICATION.	Class No.	Division No.	Sub-Division No.	Sent out.	Returned.
AGRICULTURE,	1	-	-	-	-
<i>Farming,</i>	1	1	-	56	42
<i>Gardening and Arboriculture,</i>	1	2	-	-	-
<i>Nurseries,</i>	1	3	-	-	-
COMMERCIAL,	2	-	-	-	-
<i>Fisheries,</i>	2	1	-	-	-
<i>Cod,</i>	2	1	1	7	2
<i>Mackerel,</i>	2	1	2	10	3
<i>Shore,</i>	2	1	3	3	1
<i>Whale,</i>	2	1	4	2	2
<i>Land Travel and Transportation,</i>	2	2	-	-	-
<i>Coach and Omnibus Lines,</i>	2	2	1	1	1
<i>Express Routes and Teaming,</i>	2	2	2	5	3
<i>Hack and Livery Service,</i>	2	2	3	4	3
<i>Horse Railroads,</i>	2	2	4	4	2
<i>Steam Railroads,</i>	2	2	5	6	3
<i>Water Travel and Transportation,</i>	2	3	-	-	-
<i>Ferry Boats,</i>	2	3	1	1	1
<i>Sailing Vessels,</i>	2	3	2	2	2
<i>Steam Vessels,</i>	2	3	3	2	2
DOMESTIC LABOR AND WOMEN'S WORK,	3	-	-	-	-
<i>House Work,</i>	3	1	-	-	-
<i>Regular,</i>	3	1	1	359	359
<i>Transient,</i>	3	1	2	252	252
<i>Hotels and Saloons,</i>	3	2	-	-	-
<i>Hotel Work,</i>	3	2	1	8	8
<i>Restaurant and Saloon Work,</i>	3	2	2	23	23
<i>Home Work,</i>	3	3	-	-	-
<i>Custom and Sale,</i>	3	3	1	238	238
<i>Store Work,</i>	3	4	-	-	-
<i>Accountants,</i>	3	4	1	27	27
<i>Cash and Errand Girls,</i>	3	4	2	115	115
<i>Saleswomen,</i>	3	4	3	123	123
<i>Shop and Manufacturing Work,</i>	3	5	-	-	-
<i>Manufactories,</i>	3	5	1	139	139
<i>Shops,</i>	3	5	2	156	156
INDUSTRIAL,	4	-	-	-	-
<i>Apparel,</i>	4	1	-	-	-
<i>Boots and Shoes,</i>	4	1	1	397	115
<i>Bonnets,</i>	4	1	2	5	-
<i>Buttons,</i>	4	1	3	5	4

Employment Classification—Continued.

CLASSIFICATION.	Class No.	Division No.	Sub-Division No.	Sent out.	Returned.
<i>INDUSTRIAL—Continued.</i>					
Caps and Hats,*	4	1	4	24	4
Clothing,*	4	1	5	6	1
Cotton,	4	1	6	173	64
Furs,*	4	1	7	7	1
Hoop Skirts and Corsets,*	4	1	8	6	3
Hosiery,	4	1	9	11	2
Rubber and Elastic Goods,	4	1	10	11	6
Straw and Palm Leaf,	4	1	11	31	9
Woollen,	4	1	12	219	69
<i>Chemicals, &c.,</i>	4	2	—	—	—
Candles and Soap,	4	2	1	5	—
Chemical Preparations,	4	2	2	25	11
Gas,	4	2	3	4	3
Leads and Paints,	4	2	4	8	5
Matches,	4	2	5	4	1
Medicines and Perfumery,	4	2	6	8	2
Oils,	4	2	7	12	4
Powder,	4	2	8	5	2
<i>Food, Drink, etc.,</i>	4	3	—	—	—
Bacon and Lard,	4	3	1	10	5
Bakers and Confectioners,*	4	3	2	2	—
Brewers and Distillers,	4	3	3	30	7
Butchers and Drovers,	4	3	4	5	5
Cheese,	4	3	5	6	2
Chocolate,	4	3	6	3	2
Fishmongers,	4	3	7	4	2
Flour,	4	3	8	10	4
Ice,	4	3	9	5	1
Pickles and Preserves,*	4	3	10	3	2
Spices and Coffee,*	4	3	11	2	1
Sugar,	4	3	12	7	3
Tobacco and Snuff,	4	3	13	10	4
Vinegar,	4	3	14	3	2
<i>Mineral Substances,</i>	4	4	—	—	—
Brick,	4	4	1	27	5
Bone,	4	4	2	3	2
Earthen and Stone Ware,	4	4	3	12	8
Glass,	4	4	4	18	8
Lime and Plaster,	4	4	5	8	4
Quarries,	4	4	6	29	9
Sand and Soap Stone,	4	4	7	5	—
<i>Printing and Collaterals,</i>	4	5	—	—	—
Book Binding,	4	5	1	10	3
Engraving and Lithographing,	4	5	2	7	7
Paper and other Stock,	4	5	3	65	32
Paper Ruling,	4	5	4	—	—
Printing,	4	5	5	6	3
Type and Electrotpe Foundries,	4	5	6	12	3

Employment Classification—Continued.

CLASSIFICATION.	Class No.	Division No.	Sub-Division No.	Sent out.	Returned.
INDUSTRIAL—Continued.					
<i>Miscellaneous,</i>	4	6	—	—	—
Baskets,	4	6	1	6	2
Belting,	4	6	2	13	2
Bleacherics, etc.,	4	6	3	8	4
Brooms and Brushes,	4	6	4	16	5
Carpets,	4	6	5	8	3
Combs,	4	6	6	14	3
Cork,	4	6	7	2	2
Felting,	4	6	8	3	1
Hair,*	4	6	9	3	—
Harness,	4	6	10	7	2
Jewelry,	4	6	11	32	17
Leather,	4	6	12	59	20
Leather Board,	4	6	13	5	3
Pocket Books,	4	6	14	8	3
Sewing Silk,	4	6	15	3	1
Twine and Cordage,	4	6	16	12	3
Whips,	4	6	17	6	3
MECHANICAL,					
<i>Cars and Carriages,</i>	5	—	—	—	—
Carriages,	5	1	—	—	—
Cars,	5	1	1	67	30
<i>Construction and Finish of Buildings,</i>	5	2	—	—	—
Builders,	5	2	1	12	2
Masons,	5	2	2	17	3
Painters,	5	2	3	24	5
Plasterers,	5	2	4	11	1
Plumbers,	5	2	5	14	5
Roofers,	5	2	6	8	3
Sash and Blinds,	5	2	7	25	11
Sawing and Planing,	5	2	8	56	27
Stair Building,	5	2	9	5	—
<i>Furniture, etc.,</i>	5	3	—	—	—
Cabinet Making and Carving,	5	3	1	30	9
Chairs,	5	3	2	29	11
Furniture,	5	3	3	92	23
Musical Instruments,*	5	3	4	21	7
<i>Metal Work,</i>	5	4	—	—	—
Agricultural Implements,	5	4	1	14	6
Anchors,	5	4	2	7	2
Boilers,	5	4	3	12	3
Brass and Copper,	5	4	4	34	9
Files,	5	4	5	4	3
Foundries,	5	4	6	94	42
Machinery,	5	4	7	87	45
Nails and Tacks,	5	4	8	28	13

Employment Classification—Concluded.

CLASSIFICATION.	Class No.	Division No.	Sub-Division No.	Sent out.	Returned.
MECHANICAL—Continued.					
Tin and Sheet Iron,	5	4	9	10	4
Tools and Cutlery,	5	4	10	33	15
Ship Building,	5	5	—	—	—
Boats,	5	5	1	5	4
Ships,	5	5	2	5	2
Miscellaneous,	5	6	—	—	—
Boxes,	5	6	1	25	5
Broom Handles,	5	6	2	6	2
Card Clothing,	5	6	3	5	3
Coopers,	5	6	4	14	3
Fire Arms,	5	6	5	5	4
Glass Cutting,	5	6	6	7	—
Ladders,	5	6	7	3	—
Lasts,	5	6	8	3	1
Locksmiths,	5	6	9	6	6
Patterns,	5	6	10	4	4
Pencils,	5	6	11	4	2
Pumps,	5	6	12	8	3
Shuttles,	5	6	13	3	1
Toys,	5	6	14	5	4
Trunks,	5	6	15	4	—
Tubs and Pails,	5	6	16	10	6
Wheels,	5	6	17	13	4
Wooden Ware,	5	6	18	7	3
Not Classified,	5	7	19	51	21

Table of Totals.

CLASS.	Sent out.	Returned.	Percentage Returned.
Agricultural,	56	42	75
Commercial,	47	25	53
Domestic and Women's Work,	1,440	1,440	100
Industrial,	1,482	480	32
Mechanical,	933	460	50
Grand Total,	3,958	2,447	62

NOTE.—Those marked thus (*) are also treated of under Class III., Domestic Labor and Women's Work.

REMARKS.

Most of the answers to Agricultural blanks were obtained by letter, though a few were personally solicited by assistants.

Under the Commercial class, answers were solicited by letter, so far as the fisheries were concerned; upon the remaining topics personal application was made to representative parties.

All the information connected with Class 3, was obtained personally by the assistant, whose operations were confined to Boston.

A considerable number of the answers under Classes 4 and 5, covering the entire State, was obtained by assistants, and the figures above do not include hundreds of employing parties who were visited with the simple object of obtaining information for the Miscellaneous employment blank, the details of which are tabulated elsewhere by towns and cities.

With an occasional exception, the personal treatment of assistants has been gentlemanly, and the answers to circular letters have been courteous. Quite a number of blanks, however, *were returned to this office wholly unanswered*, and some employers interposed excuses and delays of various sorts when addressed personally. The personal method was generally more acceptable than that by correspondence.

In the Appendix, answers will be found to blanks filled out by workmen, in obtaining which both methods were used.

CLASS I.—AGRICULTURE.

DIVISION 1. FARMING.

DIVISION 2. GARDENING AND ARBORICULTURE.

DIVISION 3. NURSERIES.

Number of blanks sent out,	56
Number of blanks returned,	42

Under this heading we can only speak of the farming interest, as no replies were received upon either of the other two.

The condition of agricultural labor and laborers in England has received from the Royal Commissioners,* on the employ-

* The Rev. James Fraser, M. A., Rector of Upton; Frederick Henry Norman, Esq., M. A., late of Trinity College; the Hon. Edwin Berkley Portman, M. A., late Fellow of All Souls; George Culley, Esq., B. A., late of Trinity College, Cambridge, and the Hon. Edward Stanhope, M. A., Fellow of All Souls, Oxford.

ment of women, young persons, and children in agriculture (1867), a most thorough examination. A perusal of their exhaustive report filled our minds with dread and fear, lest any of its terrible facts should find a lodgment in our State and nation; and growing for awhile almost unknown and wholly unobserved, should increase, until the very foundation of the government is undermined, and the glorious edifice that has withstood the attack of the foes from without and within, should be overthrown by an insidious, slow-working and apparently contemptible trifle; even as Rome's great amphitheatre was destroyed by the little vine that grew in the crevices of its mighty walls. There is often vast energy in small causes, a controlling influence in trifles. Neglected, they may become gigantic and may work gigantic mischief. Not elephants, but small worms, corrode and destroy forests; not monsters of the sea, but little coral animals, rear structures upon which huge ships founder. Nations may be ruined by their small sins, and the ignorance of their untaught folk may overpower all the wisdom of their schoolmen. How is it now with England? She is a warning to the nations. Aware of the great change going on in New England, in the substitution of ignorant and unskilled foreign labor, for the intelligent, school-taught labor of the former era of our agriculture, we prepared a blank circular, containing a set of fifteen questions on this subject, and after submitting it to the examination of practical farmers, sent copies into every county and farming district of the State; the Secretary of the Board of Agriculture kindly assisting us by personally distributing copies at a meeting of the board. The questions submitted were as follows:—

QUESTIONS TO BLANK No. 1.

- 1.—What are the wages, and how often paid, of farm laborers in your vicinity? Men, with board, \$; without board, \$; women, with board, \$; without board, \$; young persons with board, \$; without board, \$; children, with board, \$; without board, \$.
(Young Persons are those between 15 and 21 years of age; Children, those under 15 years.)
- 2.—In what kind of work are women employed, if at all?
- 3.—Are they ever employed in field work, as in Europe, and in what kind, if any, and in what months of the year, and how many hours per day?
- 4.—In what kind of work are children employed, if at all?

- 5.—Are they ever employed in field work, and of what kind, if any, and in what months of the year, and how many hours per day?
- 6.—Have children, so employed, opportunities for schooling at any season of the year, and at what season?
- 7.—What are the working months of men laborers, and how many hours per day do they work in these several months?
- 8.—If not employed in *farm work* in any months of the year, in what kind of work do farm laborers find employment?
- 9.—What changes, if any, in the nationality of farm laborers have taken place in your vicinity within the past twenty-five years, and what is the predominant nationality? Can you estimate the percentage of the native and foreign element?
- 10.—Where foreign laborers are employed, do they become members of the farmer's family, or board with their own people?
- 11.—What is the general educational condition of the native farm laborers, and what that of the foreign?
- 12.—Whether or not the effect of the employment of foreign farm laborers within the last twenty-five years has been favorable upon the character and results of farming operations? That is, has the cultivation of the soil become more or less systematic, thorough and profitable?
- 13.—Has agricultural machinery been introduced to any considerable extent in your vicinity? and if *yes*, what has been its influence upon the numbers and wages of farm laborers?
- 14.—Is such machinery owned by individual farmers, or by parties who make the use thereof a special employment? And if the latter, what rates of pay are adopted?
- 15.—Is skilled agricultural labor increasing or decreasing? and has the introduction of machinery rendered skilled labor of less or more value than before?

Returns have been received from the counties of Berkshire, Bristol, Essex, Franklin, Hampden, Hampshire, Middlesex, Norfolk, Plymouth, Suffolk and Worcester. From the answers to the several questions propounded, we gather the subjoined facts, following the order of the subject rather than the order of interrogation.

The price of labor is of as much importance to the farmer as it is to the manufacturer, and both alike look to cheap labor as their only relief. A respondent from Berkshire County says:—

“The crying want of our farming districts is labor! Machinery would seem to have usurped the place of human labor to some extent, but, as farming, in order to pay, requires the best cultivation of the soil, hand-labor is necessary; but it grows scarcer in New England every year. During the haying season, men are rarely to

be had at any price, and the *high* rate of wages puts it out of the reach of the ordinary farmer to hire a competent number of hands for the year of eight months. We therefore hire a hand for a year, or season, and trust to luck to catch some stray help when work pushes. The result is disappointment, and a severe bending of one's own back,—a *black-eye* to farming, and a resolve, perhaps, to sell out and peddle books. What is needed to improve the farming interest is more and cheaper help. *Let the Asiatic come.* Ireland has almost run out, and those now here are getting too much Americanized to be very efficient help,—the best working for themselves and buying farms, and the others earning their wages as easily as they can.

“In the house, affairs are worse. Women are paid high wages, are very incompetent, and daily grow more inefficient. It takes three women to do what one used to do, and house-keeping is getting to be a grievous burden. Give us the Asiatics, enough at any rate for a fair trial. Let the shoemakers stick to their lasts, and not attempt to exclude from other departments of labor good and capable workmen so justly needed.”

The same writer, in answer to question fifteen,—“What is the effect of machinery upon skilled labor?”—says, “The higher the quality of labor, the greater the product and profit;” and again, “So many more profitable employments have been opened to farmers' sons, that the soil has been too much forsaken.”

We set these three statements in succession, not to prove a contradiction, but to show the necessity for a more full and free discussion of the relation existing between the labor question and agriculture.

An English gentleman, the younger son of a landed proprietor, while travelling in this country, related to us his experience as an experimental farmer. After having a farm set apart to him for scientific farming, he travelled extensively on horseback through England, Scotland and Wales, observing and inquiring into every department of farm life. When he had ended his journeyings, and had reviewed his almost limitless notes, he was surprised to find that, disagreeing as the farmers did upon almost every subject, they all agreed that the great trouble was with labor and laborers. This same trouble is expressed by a majority of our respondents, the complaint being especially

against the so-called "high price of labor." High wages are generally supposed to bring brains and skill into play, as well as their manual accompaniment; but a farmer writes us thus :—

"Farms are neglected and running to waste, because their owners cannot afford to pay twice the amount formerly paid for skilled labor, for the privilege of teaching the rudiments of farming to ignorant foreigners, who seek employment as farm laborers, because they are good for nothing else. Brains, as well as brawn, are needed by a farm laborer to make him profitable help, and brains are the great need of New England agriculture to-day."

But brains find better compensation in employments where men cease to be *drudges*. Even the foreign help prefers some leisure, as the general adoption of the ten-hour rule indicates; and this leisure, though manifestly misspent in many instances, has an influence, and we think a very large one, in *Americanizing* this adopted element. The hope and safety of the country demand that this process be not stayed or hindered, but rather encouraged, so that the wronged and outraged laborer of Europe shall be lifted out of the stultified condition in which he has been kept for centuries.

The methods of agriculture are yet crude, though growing year by year more and more into accordance with the demands of the age. Neither capital will invest, nor intelligent labor work, at a business that yields so grudging a pittance. Small farms, like small workshops, must yield to larger enterprise. Aggregate capital will therefore call for congregated labor, and as the wages of a people cannot be permanently reduced, machinery must and will be introduced to cheapen products, and make farm labor, as it has all other, more expensive; for in farming, as in every other productive enterprise, cheap labor is dearest, and dear labor cheapest.

The wages paid in this department of labor, as returned to us, are given herewith :—

TABLE No. 1.
Agricultural Wages per Month.

COUNTIES.	WAGES PER MONTH, WITH BOARD.			WAGES PER MONTH, WITHOUT BOARD.		
	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.
Berkshire, . .	\$25 to \$20	\$12 to \$10	\$18 to \$8	\$45 to \$40	\$30 to \$18	\$32 to \$20
Essex, . . .	30 to 25	14 to 12	12	48 to 40	25	25 to 18
Franklin, . .	30 to 20	12 to 8	25 to 10	60 to 40	37 to 25	50 to 25
Hampden, . .	26 to 20	—	—	40	—	—
Hampshire, . .	30 to 20	—	—	45 to 30	—	—
Middlesex, . .	20 to 15	12	12 to 10	50 to 30	30 to 25	27 to 25
Norfolk, . .	35 to 20	16 to 12	20 to 12	52 to 35	—	30 to 25
Plymouth, . .	40	—	—	60	—	—
Worcester, . .	40 to 25	14 to 10	20 to 10	50 to 35	25 to 18	27 to 14

The returns of the U. S. Census for 1870, as reported to us by Superintendent Walker, give the average wages paid farm hands, with board, in the several counties, as follows:—Barnstable, \$18; Berkshire, \$19; Bristol, \$20; Dukes, \$20; Essex, \$20.17; Franklin, \$21; Hampden, \$23.33; Hampshire, \$23; Middlesex, \$23.25; Nantucket, \$16; Norfolk, \$20; Plymouth, \$20; Worcester, \$23. The general average is \$20.52.

To understand what these wages represent, the condition of farm labor must be stated. Men are hired by the season, or from April to November. The permanent help are boarded by the farmers, and paid at the end of the season, or on account. The transient help are hired only as occasion demands, and, consequently, their yearly earnings cannot be given.

The earnings of permanent help, calling the average wages \$25, and board \$15 per month, give a total of \$40, which, as the average amount paid men without board, would amount for the year of eight months to \$320. In the other months, work is sought in manufacturing towns, or in general labor, cutting wood, or getting in ice, etc.

Women's wages, as given in the second column, are undoubtedly given for general house and dairy work. The wages paid to field-women are not given. Indeed, this class of labor has not yet been generally adopted, though from Worcester County

we learn that they "will do a great amount of farm work, such as hoeing, shovelling and raking;" and from Franklin County, "that they are employed mostly in weeding tobacco, and to some extent in hoeing and gardening;" in Middlesex County, Norfolk and Essex Counties, in "picking fruits, weeding, hoeing and haying." Irish women seem to be interested in the soil, and labor much on land of their own; but when at work for others (in cases of emergency), they receive two-thirds of a man's pay.

The returns of children's wages are too meagre to tabulate. When given, they vary from \$10 to \$5 per month with board, and from \$15 to \$12 per month without board. As large farms multiply, children are in greater demand.

In the cultivation of tobacco, boys are employed to great advantage; many of the small farms in Worcester County being worked "with boys, and men of second or third rate ability, physically and mentally." If the cheap labor demand continues, and its hurtful influences are not better understood, Mammon will say to farmers, as it has to manufacturers, "take the children," and the disastrous results that have followed, and are to follow that short-sighted policy, will appear here as in England and France. The report of the commission, to which we referred at the commencement of this subject, is full of the horrors of this system of cheap labor. In the counties of Norfolk, Essex, Sussex, and Gloucester (in England), 1,107 children under 13 years of age were employed in agricultural labor, and the same reason is given for their employment as that given for children's factory labor, namely, the *poverty of the parents*.

The change in nationality has been going on quite rapidly on the farms as well as in the factories. "*It is a very rare thing to find an active, intelligent person of American parentage, employed as a hired farm laborer.*" The Irish seem to predominate, though the French Canadians are gaining a footing.

A respondent from Worcester County says:—

"*Farming by the old stand-by native farmers is becoming of less and less interest. Their sons leave the farms for other employment, professional, mercantile, or mechanical, or anything else to get rid of the drudgery of farm labor. Consequently the foreign element*

is buying many of our best farms, to the discouragement of those that remain; but few improvements are made, and *the general tone of farming is decreasing*. To what are we coming?"

The general educational condition of the farm laborer *is very low*, even below that of the factory operative. Our respondents agree that a large percentage of them *can neither read nor write*. But it is pleasant to record the almost universal testimony that the children are, in a good measure, improving the opportunities of our free schools.

"The native farm laborers that are left are generally poor,—the smart ones having gone West, or into other employments." Of those that remain, "the educational condition is below mediocrity; that of foreigners lower yet; but their children are being better educated in our schools, some of the best pupils being Irish."

A very strong tendency is manifest among the Irish to buy cheap, or worn-out farms. The native farmer seems to follow the red man westward, where "the star of empire takes its way."

A visitor in the Connecticut Valley will notice the homes of these farm laborers here and there, in the sandy slopes or pine intervales, the land around them cultivated by the women, or during their leisure hours by the men, or young persons. Often the washing of the well-to-do families on the "main street," will also be done by the wives and daughters of the farm hands. After awhile better land will be purchased with the combined savings of the family. The Irish born, especially, plant themselves upon the soil at once and stick there, improving their pecuniary condition year by year with steady progress.

Agricultural machinery has been introduced to a very considerable extent. A respondent from Norfolk County, says:—

"We make free use of agricultural machinery, and more laborers are employed than before its introduction, and there has been an increase of wages on the whole." "Without machinery we should hardly have been able to carry on our farms successfully."

From an address before the Worcester Agricultural Society, by General Benjamin F. Butler, given in the Report of the Board of Agriculture for 1870, we quote the following:—

"It must be first considered that there is a lack of increase in the capacity for production of the land within the last half century, as compared with the increase of production in everything which goes to make the necessities of life, from manufactures and the arts. True, the machine-reaper, mower, thresher and rake have aided in some degree the labor of the farmer, but it cannot fail to be observed, that almost all the improvements in agricultural machinery only aid the farmer to gather the results of his toil. They do not make a spear of grass or blade of corn grow where there was not one before. They do not increase the product. The plough is the same by which our fathers broke the furrow; the hoe, the shovel, the spade, are the same. The cultivator and like contrivances have lightened, in some degree, our labors, but only in the thousandth part of a degree, as compared with the production of the power-loom over the loom of a half century since."

We give further extracts from our blanks, which bear upon different phases of the subject:—

[FROM BLANK No. 38.]

There is less and less interest taken by the majority of our farmers in their employment, because it yields less and less. They consider their life and lot a hard one, feel restive under the burden of taxation and the expenses of supporting their families and farm operators. They have not gone into the raising of early market vegetables and small fruits, as has been the case in many farming towns, but have rather kept in the old way. The principal improvements have been made by non-residents; i. e., gentlemen from the city, who have money to invest in this way. A limited number of such in a farming town are of benefit in setting an example, and in doing things in different ways from the native born, in exciting a laudable ambition, and in improving the buildings, &c. But were a small town to be owned wholly, or nearly so, by non-residents, the effect would be to *destroy all local interest in town and parish affairs, and all self-reliance, if not self-respect*. In this view of the case the tendency to the ownership by non-residents of large tracts of land is working, and will yet work, a *great and I fear disastrous change in our country towns*, in style of farming, and in the number and character of its resident population.

[FROM BLANK No. 39.]

Foreigners, generally Irish, all seem to want to work in or near a village where there is a Catholic church, and will work for less

wages when they can get such a location. There is but a little help that a farmer living eight or ten miles from such church can get that he can depend upon.

[FROM BLANK No. 40.]

The greatest drawback to farming in this vicinity is the extreme difficulty in procuring reliable help. If we engage a man at a stipulated price, and he is offered \$1 per month more than we agreed to pay, there are eight chances out of ten that he will not commence work at all, and if he does commence he is unwilling to work more than eight hours per day, and liable to leave any day or hour.

[FROM BLANK No. 41.]

The character of our products has changed very much within a few years. Formerly grew much beef, wool, &c., with cider, cider-brandy, rye for distilling, etc. Now there is very little rye, more corn, tobacco, &c., nice fruits and less cider. We need more labor in summer for the raising of more hoed crops, and we can use it in winter in getting out wood, lumbering, and in the ice trade.

[FROM BLANK No. 42.]

The young men of New England, but more especially of Massachusetts, they whose parents have taken care of the farm and dairy for years back, tire of such monotonous labor, and seek either broader acres at the West, or a more circumscribed limit behind the counter or in the counting-room. They had rather handle the yardstick than the plough. Now their places on the farm must be filled. A foreign supply is the only alternative, and Ireland is the most prolific source.

The habits of the Irish, and their manner of cultivating the soil, so widely differ from those of the New Englander that they cannot at once adopt our mode, nor will their mode answer for us. This being the case, we cannot say that the Irish bring any system of agriculture. The consequence is, a bad system of culture inevitably follows when the employer cannot superintend it himself. The French Canadians, who are multiplying in New England, are better laborers, and more skilful husbandmen than the Irish, yet *there are but few farms that are carried on by foreign help that show so great a degree of thrift as the same farms did under Yankee culture a quarter of a century ago.*

This is owing in part to the lack of skill, and in part to the lack of interest, in the help necessary to keep the farm up. Their chief ambition is to get a higher price for their labor.

Another reason which has a power in the direction of unprofitable farming is the fact that there is not so much help employed on the farm as was employed twenty-five years ago, and that is due in part to the high price of labor, and in part to lack of skill. Nobody wants ignorance in farming any more than in anything else. The cost of board and of wages now will make one man *cost his employer as much as two and a half men did twenty-five years ago, and it is very rare that a farm laborer can be found who will do more than two-thirds the work that a man would do then.* The mechanics' ten hour system is another decided influence operating against the farming interest.

[FROM BLANK No. 54.]

Agricultural machinery is being employed extensively in consequence of the cost and quality of manual labor. The effect of its use is good. It enlarges the breadth of cultivation. It sifts out unprofitable laborers. It does not reduce the wages of competent and efficient laborers. Skilled, faithful labor is not increased, but is rendered more valuable in consequence of machinery.

[FROM BLANK No. 56.]*

To your question why so many of our young men, born and bred on the farm, are so loth to remain on it, but seek the town or city for other employments than that of a farmer, I would give the following answers :

1. As an occupation in life, farming has not held its relative position compared with commercial, manufacturing or even mechanical pursuits. Time was when our farmers stood next to our merchants in social rank. If their wealth was not equal to that of other men, or so rapidly accumulated, they were regarded almost universally as substantial men, inferior to none in all the sterling qualities of manhood, and to be recognized always and everywhere as such. For a young woman of the city to marry a farmer's son, and settle with him for life on a farm, was regarded as an event by no means undesirable, or to be avoided. Farmers now, alas! have sunk in public estimation below the tradesman and the mechanic, provided the two latter do but live and carry on their business in the city. The farmer's life is looked upon as a hard and undesirable one, and he himself to be commiserated for it. Fit companions he might perhaps find for his life of toil and loneliness in the region where he dwells, but not in the town or city, where hard work is known only as menial, and the daily and nightly walk but a round of pleasure,

* These valuable comments are from Hon. A. W. Dodge, of Hamilton, Essex County

physical or intellectual. All this species of public opinion, widespread as it is, has a force and influence in stamping the pursuit of farming with the badge of inferiority, if not servility, so that young men with ambitious longings and noble aspirations are driven from the farm, to find elsewhere scope and sphere for their gratification.

2. Young men in these latter days, especially in the shoddy days of the late civil war, when fortunes were in so many cases so suddenly accumulated, have become uneasy and dissatisfied with the slow and gradual steps by which their fathers attained a competency. They have, I fear, in their mind's eye the motto to put money in their pockets by fair means if they can, but at all events to put it there, and they go forth with extravagant notions of the wealth they are so surely and easily to roll up, and the gaudy style in which they will roll into their native town in coach and four, to astonish all their former companions and excite their envy and admiration. As to work, hard work, with their hands and backs, scorned be the thought! They were born to something higher and better. Their minds are too expansive to be cabined, cribbed, confined to the narrow limits of any New England farm, and especially to toil there year in and year out in the sweat of their brows, to rise early, and eat the simple, frugal meals of the farmer, and to earn money, if it can be earned at all, by pitiful dribblets, and to spend it, if to spend it all they dare, in providing merely for the necessities of life. Oh, this is what our ardent young men will never do, so long as there is the town or city where a prospect so widely the reverse of this is before them. So to the city, to the town, to the marts of trade and pleasure, where money centres, and where the sharpest fellow is sure to get it—there they one and all flock, each to make his fortune, whoever loses it; each to draw a prize in the grand lottery where there are no blanks! It is impossible to make headway against such a delusion and fascination by reason or sober common sense.

3. Another reason, and intimately connected with the one last considered, is the undue importance they give to great wealth as the measure of success in life. They read or they hear that success is a duty. They inquire what is success, and wherein does it consist, and are pointed to this man and that, who has made great wealth, as the best illustration of it. But seldom does it occur to them that success in life is to be estimated, not by the amount of riches one accumulates any more than by the number of years he lives, but by something above and beyond either of these, something that touches the deep springs of the moral being,—that which makes and is the man himself,—character,—which good, or bad, he is certain

to make, cleaving to him more indissolubly than his shadow, making life, despite his riches and honors, a burden and a torment to him. Is the picture too dark and forbidding? The shades are all the more needful to set off by contrast the false lights of the foreground. Would that our young men could so look at it, till character achieved on the farm, in humble but honest toil, be to them far beyond all the wealth acquired at the expense of it in the whirl and tumult of city life.

4. Another reason for the distaste of the farm, is the want of *proper means and care*, on the part of their fathers and others, to make it more attractive, and give it more scope for the exercise of their mental as well as bodily faculties. Young men are not unfrequently treated by their fathers pretty much the same as are the hired men, Irish or others, from whom so much work is to be exacted within a given time. *They are allowed little time for reading or recreation; few holidays*, rare opportunities to go from home, except to mill or to market; consequently they get discouraged and discontented with their lot. No marvel that they contrast their lives and opportunities with those of the young men of the city, always to the preference of the latter. Now this might easily be avoided, by a different course of treatment by the parent. Home should be made happy and pleasant; the farm, a scene of high achievements, where the art of man works annual miracles in conjunction with the powers of nature. There should be instilled into the youthful mind a desire to know the why and wherefore of everything done on the farm; to study into the laws of nature; to unlock some of the more common truths of science, so as to apply them to practice; to inquire into the great secrets of animal and vegetable physiology, and make them available to the better management of his business; in short, to throw around even the commonest operations of the farm, an atmosphere of inquiry and investigation that will stimulate thought and stir up high motives, so as to make the farmer truly in love with his vocation.

But how differently act, not merely the old farmer, but men in other walks of life, editors of public journals, and our public men, who mould the opinions that influence society. When an institution of learning, specially adapted to young farmers, is started, these men, some of them at least, join in the hue and cry against theoretical farming; against educating young men away from the farm; against giving them any education whatever. One of the best of our local papers says:—

“The ‘New York Nation’ suggests a volume of truth in regard to Agricultural Colleges in their relation to the farming interest, when it says: ‘The

young men who go to *school* and *college*, are largely influenced in so doing by a wish *not* to be farmers, while those who have to be farmers, consider that they can learn farming better on the farm than anywhere else. What farmers, young or old, want to know about the theory of farming, they get from agricultural books and newspapers; and what they do not want to know, they think is not worth knowing.’”

Could anything be more insulting to the farmers of New England, and their boys, than this depreciation of knowledge, theoretical or scientific, as applied to agriculture? The more ignorant the sons of our farmers, the better fitted to take the places of their fathers! We have heard, from some sources, that ignorance is the mother of devotion. It was left for our enlightened nineteenth century, and our enlightened country to discover and give currency to the great truth, that ignorance is the mother of all good farming! Who wonders that our boys should flee from the farm, where brood only darkness and despair, to more sunny and hopeful skies? Surely, if any one method could be devised, sure to accomplish the depopulation of the rural districts, this is it. Doomed, forever doomed, to grope and delve in ignorance, where light and hope never come, this will degrade labor and doubly degrade the laborer. But may we not hope better things? May we not confidently look for the union of science with practice, so that the young man and woman, who, in the future, are to carry on our farms, will draw from them such benefits as to lighten toil, and make it more profitable—when the school and the college shall send out their pupils to the farm as well as to other walks of life, to make the one equally with the others a praise in all our borders?

We give the above letter without abridgment, coming as it does from a gentleman of considerate thought, of large experience in agricultural matters, and of a very wide acquaintance with farmers and farm life. The strong argument it contains for the advancement of theoretic as well as practical knowledge is made to apply to the farmer and the farmer’s sons. Would’not a share in this knowledge by the hired help be of equal benefit?

The causes assigned for the increasing distaste for farm life demand most serious attention. They are these:—1st, The stigma of inferiority. There is nothing more revolting to the mind of a school-taught American than even the thought of inferiority. This he will never submit to, and if it be inherent in any special employment he will leave it as an act of self-

respect. 2d, The slow, tedious process of making money by farming, and the very strong persuasion that none is to be made. 3d, The demoralizing love of money, which love (not the money) is pronounced "to be the root of all evil." 4th, The very limited time allowed for personal culture.

Now, in fact, these several causes are all intimately allied to each other; for the stigma of inferiority is always thrown upon those who drudge at manual toil, and this stigma is the most intense where the distance between those who toil and those who toil not, is the greatest—where caste is the most exacting, and where civilization (so called) is at the highest—highest for the few, with a supplemental lowest for the many. The desire and hope for great accumulation, and the dread and fear of great poverty, both alike spur the ambitious lad of the farm, and persuade him to forsake a place where money is scarce, for a place where it abounds, that he may have a chance at gathering it in. With the very moderate culture he has received, he forsakes the country, with its pure air and pure life, and repairs to the city, with its impurities defying count, risking all for the absorbing, solitary hope, the "accursed love of gold" (as Virgil calls it), counting only the successful few (a very brief task), and forgetful, as is everybody else, of the great "cloud of witnesses" whom ill-success has handed over to oblivion. Now, for the true interest of the farmer, as for that of everybody else, that place is the best where labor has its best, quickest and surest recompense, quickening the power as well as the inclination to purchase, and that is, and always will be, where the cry for cheap labor is the faintest; for where wage is least the market is duller, since small wage cripples first the power, and then the desire to have. And by high and low wage, we mean not the amount, but the purchasing power of what a man earns.

From many of the answers to our agricultural blanks, it is plain that the burdens and trials of a transition period of society are pressing heavily upon the farm. Some of the changes now taking place, though undesirable in their immediate effects, nevertheless bear the impress of progress toward better conditions of life. So soon as the moral and cultured forces of the State are brought into harmony with the best tendencies of reform as applied to labor, friction will cease, and this great

industry take its proper place in the adjustments which will follow an investigation of the question.

These returns show also that the antagonism between capital and labor in the manufacturing centres as to the hours of labor, has been felt upon the farm. In the vicinity of large towns, farm-laborers have already secured the advantage of the ten-hour day, except upon those extensive market farms where the change is most desirable, as drawing unskilled labor away from the crowded city. In towns remote from cities, the old prejudice exists against any reduction of the hours of labor. Practically, the only plea for the retention of old customs is, that desperate diseases require desperate remedies; but it should be borne in mind that every twelve or fourteen-hour day exacted, helps to lessen the supply of labor by sending the laborer from the farm to the town or city, where the requirement can be avoided.

We have said that the foreign laborer is getting possession of our badly-located or sterile farms. This is doubtless true; and if the former owners migrate westward, or bring their skill to the better lands nearer the better markets of cities, making such change of culture and crop as the change of market may demand, it will be better for all concerned. This done, and frequent railroad trains accommodating those whose work is in town, and decreased hours of labor relieving and improving both city and farm laborer, should we not hear less about decaying farming towns and crowded city tenements? The demand of intelligent labor in the city for country homes, is certainly a legitimate one, and its gratification need not be denied. And, on the other hand, the demand of the country laborer for the social and religious affinities of the city are equally imperative, and can be met by using the same appliances—frequent trains and reduced hours. Of course, this is a work of time. It is probable that most of those who leave our farms now, go to the West. There has been an extension of market-gardening, but it is doubtful if thus far it has resulted in the transfer to the neighborhood of cities of the most valuable of our farm population.

Before proceeding further, it is desirable to consider the special situation and needs of the hired laborer on the farm. To this end we submit the testimony of a farm-laborer, now

residing in this State, but who has had large experience in northern New England. He says:—

“In the western portions of Maine and New Hampshire, we feel the effects of exorbitant prices in the city markets as keenly as do residents in those cities; I mean such of us as have to labor for a living without owning a farm. Our average wages are not more than half what they are in cities, although our rents and taxes are much smaller; but if we buy a bushel of corn or of potatoes, we have to pay for them the same as the Portland or Boston consumer does. We have to pay Boston prices for our butter and cheese, and few articles are exempt from the test of the market reports in the ‘Ploughman,’ the ‘Cultivator’ or the ‘New England Farmer,’ for these are the market authorities in the country. The farmer tells us that he gets the same prices at the store which he charges us; but he does not within twenty per cent. cash sales, and if he does happen to get a trifle more, he has to trade off his produce for store goods, on which the storekeeper has at least thirty or forty per cent. more than they could be purchased for in the Boston market. The price of an article, it is said, is exactly what it will bring. That is the case at least with labor in the country; it brings nothing, or next to nothing, consequently it is not worth selling at the price, and the cry goes forth, far and wide, that there is a terrible scarcity of farming help. It is not very encouraging for a stout man to work a long summer’s day, and find at night that his hard-earned seventy-five cents will only barely purchase him a bushel of potatoes, and that a week’s toil will only reward him with a third of a barrel of very pitiful flour. No wonder country lads flock into the large towns out of the way of such poverty of wages and high prices of provisions; no wonder that towns are being left to the old men and women, and populations are decreasing at a fearful rate. Agricultural labor wages in the country, and Boston market prices, are irreconcilable with each other or with common justice.”

This statement shows that low wage and cost of living are affecting agricultural life, lessening the country population of New England, and driving its people to crowded cities, where wealth allures and great crimes abound.

An agricultural paper, discussing the “Depopulation of Rural Towns in New England,” presents three remedies: first, recruiting from the cities; second, foreign immigration; third,

the erection of neat, comfortable, inexpensive houses on the farm of the employer, and the hiring of more married men. The latter recommendation is very warmly enforced by the writer and seems worthy of very general acceptance. Its application, however, implies a radical modification of the existing relations between capital and labor. It means, in its development and extension, nothing more or less than the complete overthrow of the cheap labor theory. Married men and women will not work as cheaply as those that are single, and for this reason are practically excluded from large classes of employment, with the most pernicious results upon the relations of the sexes and the general welfare of society. Every indication of the abandonment of the usual theory of supply and demand in labor relations, ought to be favorably received.

Regretting our inability to give more space to this department, we close with the expression of the conviction, that the agricultural side of the question of labor is to receive, at no distant day, its most inspiring impulse from those fertile acres of the West, whose unlimited production is destined to impress the fact upon the public mind, that they fully supply the need which has been met by machinery in manufactures, and thus render practicable those reductions in the hours of daily labor which are absolutely necessary for maturing the intelligence and character needed to preserve our institutions.

CLASS II.—COMMERCIAL.

DIVISION 1. FISHERIES.

DIVISION 2. LAND TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION.

DIVISION 3. WATER TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION.

Number of blanks sent out, 47

Number of blanks returned, 25

DIVISION 1.—FISHERIES.

Under this heading we give, in condensed form, a summary of the replies received to the following questions. They were specially intended to bring out the facts relating to the influence of labor-partnership, which had been recognized and successfully applied, from the earliest times, to this branch of business. The testimony is from authorities wholly reliable, and is confined mainly to the Cape district:—

QUESTIONS TO BLANK NO. 2.

- 1.—Size and cost of vessels or boats, with statement of the business, whether whale, cod, or otherwise?
- 2.—How owned? whether by those who man them? and if so, to what extent?
- 3.—Details of outfit, and how is the cost apportioned?
- 4.—Length of the voyage, and in what waters?
- 5.—How conducted? whether upon shares or wages?
- 6.—If upon shares, state the proportions to officers and men?
- 7.—If upon wages, state the rate? Are any advances made?
- 8.—What are the hours of labor or duty of the crews of fishermen? To what extent do they remain idle during the winter?
- 9.—Is the sale of any one of these products made a monopoly on the part of those in the business, by underselling competitors regardless of cost?
- 10.—Have government bounties been paid to certain classes of fishermen? and if so, to whom, what amount, and under what conditions, and are they still paid?
- 11.—What is the largest amount of earnings of one of the crew you have known, for a season or voyage?
- 12.—What is the average?
- 13.—How many boys under 15 are usually employed in any description of fishermen?
- 14.—What is their share or wage?
- 15.—Is the success of voyages ever hindered, or prevented by dissensions between the men, or between the men and the officers? If so, state the description of fishing and circumstances?
- 16.—Have you known of cases of disagreement in the settlement of voyages? If so, state the facts.
- 17.—Are share-fishermen wasteful of stores, or time, or deficient in energy in the pursuit of their calling?
- 18.—Is there a noticeable tendency of the young men in your place to follow share-fishing?
- 19.—If so, does this tendency arise in any degree from its systematized division of profits and freedom from the defects of the wage system?
- 20.—Do fishermen observe the Sabbath by refraining from labor?
- 21.—Do American consuls in foreign ports have the right to interfere in adjusting quarrels, &c.?
- 22.—How far is the success of share-fishing due to the authority of the master?
- 23.—Have you had an opportunity to compare the relative advantages and defects of the partnership and wage systems, by residence respectively, in our operative and fishing communities? If so, please state your conclusions.

1. Size and Cost of Vessels.—Branches of Business.

Vessels employed in the cod and mackerel fisheries are of the same class, ranging from forty to one hundred and twenty

tons (new measurement), and averaging about seventy tons, costing when new from five to twelve thousand dollars, according to tonnage. Many of them are bought at second hand, at prices ranging between three and five thousand dollars. Whaling vessels are a larger class, ranging from seventy to one hundred and fifty tons, and cost, at first hands, including the whaling gear, from eight to sixteen thousand dollars. The Wellfleet fleet is composed of seventy or eighty first-class vessels, most of them not more than five years old, and all engaged in the mackerel fishing. In the season from November 1 to May 20, a large part of them are employed in freighting oysters from Virginia to Boston. The largest crew consists of twenty persons all told, and the smallest twelve, eighteen being a fair average for the larger mackerel vessels, and fourteen for the smaller.

2. By whom owned.

The cod and mackerel vessels are owned and managed very much in the same manner. In Provincetown they are owned by the fitters, and mechanics whose business is connected with vessels, and such persons as the fitters can persuade to invest. This is specially true of vessels engaged in the whale fishery. Sometimes the captain owns a portion; but of late the crews seldom own parts of vessels. In Wellfleet, the captain is always an owner in the vessel in which he sails, to the extent of from one-sixteenth to one-half. Sometimes he owns the whole. Very often some of the crew are owners, and frequently a captain and crew will not only own the vessel they are in, but a part of their neighbor's also. Corporations are interested in vessels to some extent, and where there they will fit and pack the fish on as reasonable terms as others, they have the preference. Sometimes the master and sharesmen are not owners at all, and less than a fourth of the tonnage employed is owned by those who secure the voyage.

3. Details of Outfit—Apportionment of Cost.

The cost of a whaler's outfit varies with the size of the vessel and the contemplated length of the voyage, and ranges between three and ten thousand dollars. With very few exceptions they are fitted by the owners, who bear all the expense, the officers

and "crew going on a lay.* In share voyages the charges are borne by the sharesmen and owners, in such proportions as may be agreed upon. In cod fishing the outfit is divided into great *generals* and small *generals*, the former consisting of bait, salt, boats, trawls and nets, water, fuel and lights; the latter embracing provisions, small stores and wages. These distinctions in the matter of outfit do not really exist, unless some of the crew are sharesmen. Settlement is effected by first ascertaining the gross amount of the sales, and then subtracting the great general bill. One-eighth of the remainder is taken by the owners as compensation for curing the fish, and to the other seven-eighths the value of the oil saved is added. One-quarter of this amount is held by the agent to be divided among the owners, and out of the remaining three-quarters the sharesmen pay the small general bill, and divide what is left among themselves as profit. In mackerel voyages, the great generals are salt, bait, fuel, lights, ballast and inspection. Under the last item are included barrels, salt used in packing the fish for the market, and cooperage. The small generals, as before mentioned, are provisions, small stores and wages. For a voyage of six weeks the outfit consists of seventy-five bbls. of salt, twenty-five bbls. of bait, four bbls. of flour, one bbl. of beef, one bbl. of pork, two bbls. of potatoes, and one of turnips, beets, etc., thirty gals. of molasses, one hundred lbs. of sugar, fifty lbs. of butter, twenty-five lbs. of lard, two lbs. of tea, coffee, etc., saleratus, cream tartar, spices, two feet of wood, one ton of coal, thirty bbls. of water, five gals. of kerosene. The owners pay the great generals in proportion to the amount they draw, which is $27\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the remainder being divided among the sharesmen.

4. *Length and Direction of Voyages.*

Whaling vessels are gone from seven to twenty-four months, and cruise in the Atlantic Ocean, along the coasts of Africa, the West Indies, and Western Islands, and South America. Very few pass beyond either Cape Horn or the Cape of Good Hope into the Pacific Ocean. Cod fishing voyages occupy from three to five months, and usually only one is made in a season, commencing in May or June and ending in September or October.

* Share.

The crews fish on the banks and shoals along the coast, from Nantucket to the Straits of Labrador—the Grand Banks, George's Shoals and the Bay of St. Lawrence being the principal fishing grounds. Mackerel fishing commences in May and June and continues till November, the vessels returning to port, landing and marketing their fish, and refitting from four to six times during the season. Voyages in home waters last from three or four to six weeks. If going to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the outfit is for a three months' cruise. The fishing grounds used during the months of May and June are off Long Island, Block Island and Martha's Vineyard; in July and August, the coast of Maine, Cushe's Ledge, George's Banks and the Bay of Fundy; in September and October, Massachusetts Bay. The habits of the mackerel are gregarious; within the compass of a mile square, the ocean often seems alive with them. Man, in pursuit of his prey, is obliged to imitate them, and from three to five hundred sail of fishermen are often seen to heave to in the open sea, within such narrow limits as to remind one of the crowded docks of a great seaport.

5. *Shares and Wages.*

The share-system prevails, as a rule, whalers having lays, and cod and mackerelmen, shares. On a cod voyage, crews are generally hired to work the vessel for so much a season; and sometimes this is so in mackerel vessels.

6. *The Share System.*

On whaling vessels, the lay is graduated according to the position the man holds. The range of compensation is very wide, the captain receiving twenty times the amount paid to some of the seamen. The range of culture and capacity is quite as wide, the captains being men of New England birth and education, and the seamen being made up of Portugese, Kanucks and West India negroes. The captain has the best lay, getting from one-ninth to one-thirteenth, the other officers from one-twelfth to one forty-second, and the seamen from one-eightieth to one two-hundredth. After the payment of the lays, the rest of the proceeds remain as the property of the owners—This business is now almost hopelessly depressed.

When a cod or mackerel vessel is sailed on shares, the sharesmen, captain and all, receive alike as a general thing, though sometimes the owners, in order to secure the services of a specially smart man as captain, will pay him a per cent, or *skippership*, out of the vessel's earnings, which gives him from one to three hundred dollars extra. The captain has the whole management of the voyage, selling the fish and meeting the bills. He associates himself with five or six others as sharesmen, who are selected on account of energy and experience. They are responsible for the provision and run the risk of the voyage, selecting their crews on as easy terms as they can, the latter class being termed half-liners. The fish caught by the sharesmen are salted in one lot and kept separate from the general catch. Green hands get a third of their line and pay their share of the bait. Each half-liner dresses and salts his own fish, and marks the barrels containing them with his own private mark. When the mackerel of a trip are landed, those caught by the sharesmen are first packed, the inspector calling out and separating according to the different qualities. The same course is pursued with the stock of each half-liner. The inspector renders an account to the master or agent, of the amount of stock fish, and of those belonging to each half-liner, and a complete record is entered on the vessel's books. At the close of the season the values of the several trips are added together, and the aggregate is called the general stock. Out of this the great general bill is deducted, and from the remainder the twenty-five or twenty-eight hundredths belonging to the agent or vessel are taken. The value of each half-liner's catch is entered separately, the cost of inspection deducted, and half the net balance assigned to him. In some cases he is also charged with a share of the expense for bait and the wages of the cook. Sometimes, not often, the fisherman will get five-ninths of his fish clear. The value of their own fish, and of one-half those of the half-liners, subject to the deductions named, becomes the property of the sharesmen. After the payment of the small general bill, the remainder is the *profit* of the sharemen, and is divided among them equally. It is not customary to make advances of money on any kind of a fish voyage, though the fitter sometimes lets the crew have clothing when the vessel is ready to sail.

7. *Wages.*

Cod fish sharesmen hire their crews by the season, giving from \$150 to \$250 per man. The cook or steward on a mackerel voyage has his half line, and from \$100 to \$175 for the season, or \$30 a month.

8. *Hours of Labor.*

There is more regularity of labor in cod, than in whale or mackerel fishing, it being customary for all but one or two of the fishermen to leave the vessel in their dories at least twice every day, and remain fishing several hours at a time. This is always done when the weather will permit. On returning to the vessel, the fish caught are dressed, washed and salted. All this requires from eight to twelve hours of labor—most of the time from sunrise to sunset. The crews of whalers and mackerel vessels, when opportunity offers, work night and day, as they are compelled by the weather and lack of fish to undergo a great deal of irksome and enforced idleness. Weeks of exhausting toil alternate with weeks of almost absolute rest. When mackerel fishermen, as is often the case, take a deck of from eighty to a hundred barrels of fish, severe and protracted toil is necessary to cure and save them. Their routine is something like this : At break of day all hands are called, the main-sail is hoisted and the vessel is hove to for fishing. If none are found, the vessel is hove to again under her foresail at night. If the fish bite, they are fished for until they stop biting. Then the catch has to be taken care of, no fish being allowed to go until the following day without being dressed and salted. Each man besides has to help work the vessel, stand his regular watch, and obey the captain generally.

9. *Winter Employment.*

In the winter season, many masters of mackerel vessels go into the oyster freighting, or coasting business. The oysters brought to Providence, Boston, Salem, Portsmouth and Portland from Virginia and Maryland, are almost exclusively carried in vessels belonging to Wellfleet, Truro and Provincetown ; the former place having much the larger proportion of this lucrative business. About a hundred vessels are so employed, and from four to six trips each are made during the cold sea-

son. Of the fishermen who remain at home, many are employed in the shore fisheries, and perhaps a fourth part have nothing but chance jobs, and so remain idle a great part of the time. The larger sized cod fishing vessels in Provincetown are most of them employed in the West India trade and in coast-wise freighting.

Monopolies.

On Cape Cod, monopolies in the sale of fishery products are hardly possible at the present time. These interests have become too large for local control. The market is extensive, and competition lively. Capital invested and amount of product have quadrupled within fifty years, but the demand still keeps ahead of the supply.

10. Government Bounty.

Cod fishermen used to get four dollars a ton, if employed four months a year, between February and December, but they do not now receive it. This amount was to be divided between the owners and the fishermen, three-tenths to the former and seven-tenths to the latter; but the division gave rise to so much ill feeling and litigation that few regretted the repeal of the law. Now salt is taken from the government warehouses, and no duties are required, except upon so much of the quantity taken as is not used, which virtually is none at all.

11, 12. The Earnings of Fishermen.

In whale fishing, the owners and officers get about all that is earned. The average earnings of a crew of mackerel and cod fishermen would not exceed \$300, in a good season. There have been instances in cod fishing voyages, where the catch was large, the time short, and the sales made at the market rate, in which the earnings of sharesmen for, say, six months of labor, have reached the handsome amount of \$1,000 and \$2,000; and in two or three cases, where the master was sole proprietor of the voyage, there has been left him, after payments and expenses, a profit of \$3,000; but the average earnings of the sharesmen cannot be set higher than \$1,000. Two men on shares at cod fishing have been known to receive \$1,300 to a share. In mackerel fishing the number of

men is larger, and the earnings of an expert half-liner are frequently but little less than those of a sharesman. The highest earnings of a sharesman (and in this case there were but two of them), was \$1,000 for the season ; a fair average of last year, which was a successful one, was not over \$300. The earnings of the sharesmen are in direct proportion to the general success of the voyage, and those of the half-liner to his own individual success. The returns of labor in this calling, though frequently larger than those of ordinary land occupations, are never so sure. Skill, industry and prudence, though indispensable, are not sure guarantees of success.

13, 14. *Employment of Boys.*

Cod and whale fishermen do not generally carry any boys under fifteen years old. Mackerel fishermen take two or three, and they are usually paid, on the first voyage, a third line, less a share of expense for the bait. In most cases after the first voyage, they will get a half line. A boy of fifteen will often catch as many fish as a man. Mackerel fishing requires such a degree of activity, expertness and slight of hand, that it can hardly be acquired at all unless one begins when young. Boys generally begin before they are fifteen. Often a smart young man becomes a captain by the time he is twenty-one years old.

15, 16. *The Relations between Captain and Men.*

The captain is the only real officer on board of cod and mackerel vessels. He ships his own crew, and is never voted for, some men going year after year with the same captain. Lucky captains have the best crews, because they can have their pick of men. Sometimes, if unlucky, the voyage is hindered for a few days by the crew leaving, but voyages are never wholly
1 up from this cause. The success of a voyage depends
y upon harmony and coöperation. Instances occur every
where disturbances are caused by low and ignorant men
ers, without local attachment or home. When men are
, such fellows often have to be taken. They give much
le to young captains, especially if unlucky. They spread
action among the crew, and by constant growling and oppo-
, so annoy the captain that he becomes discouraged. No
is trouble ever comes from disagreement in settling

voyages; the men are shipped in such a definite manner as to avoid all friction.

17. *Economy of Stores and Time.*

Share fishermen are economical of stores and time, and attentive to all the interests of the voyage. Being remunerated according to results, all try to make those results as large and profitable as possible. The interest taken in the general routine of the voyage is very noticeable. It rises to the highest pitch of enthusiasm on the indications of fish under circumstances where it is possible to catch them. The same interest extends to the care of the fish afterwards, and to every arrangement or service necessary to a condition of constant readiness for action. The manner in which individualism extends itself under these circumstances is interesting. Every man is constantly under the eye of associates whose interests are identical with his, and whose influence is brought to bear upon him in ways much more natural and effective than the oversight of petty officers at sea, or overseers upon land. No one complains of this oversight because it is carried on by equals, and also because every one forms a part of the system himself in his relations to his fellows. This special phase of public opinion gives the most effective form of discipline.

18, 19. *Share-Fishing Popular, and the Reasons Why.*

Young men of ambition all prefer share-fishing to any other method. The chances of advancement under it are better, and a competence is made certain at an earlier date. Experienced fishermen prefer it because more remunerative. Its effect upon communities where prevalent is indicated by greater enterprise, thrift and self-respect. In the towns of Wellfleet, Truro and Provincetown there is noticeable a very general disposition to engage personally in production in the fisheries, by taking hold of the business with a will, and continuing in it with a perseverance and success which are not found paralleled among those working at hand labor in any other part of the State. A part of the interest is due to the fact that the investment of the capital of a place in a considerable number of small vessels, makes more openings for young men to rise to separate commands, than would be the case if it was all put in large ships. Many

become commanders of larger vessels also in due time. Thus, in the three towns above mentioned, one man calls to mind a hundred young men who, beginning as half-liners, have successively become sharesmen, then masters, and are now commanding the larger class of coasting vessels in our foreign and domestic commerce. Such results are not reached by this class in any of the communities where fishing is conducted upon the wage system. In these places the owners and fitters become wealthy, while the great mass receive wages that afford them only a scanty subsistence, and give small opportunity for hope of a competence. But the benefits reach lower down in the social scale than the class that aspires to control or command. There seems to be an entire absence of all class repulsions, aversions or jealousies that arise from the avoidance of manual labor by those in authority in other forms of industry. The smartest captain in the fleet leads his crew in the labor of taking and salting. The influence which he exerts is a moral one, and arises from emulation. The direct personal interest of those under him comes from a knowledge that an understood portion of each one's individual catch, will come back as compensation at the end of the voyage. The boss-mechanic or sub-contractor *drives his men by getting in their rear, and pushing all at a uniform rate of speed, without reference to individual capacity, his herculean efforts being the natural result of his knowledge, that all he can get out of them in this way is clear gain to himself.* The differences between the two systems reach, in either case, to every element of society. There is an evident purpose among some of the capitalists of Cape Cod, to substitute the wage for the share system. Thoughtful observers feel a profound conviction that the success of this purpose may make those who cherish it rich, but must inevitably tend to the impoverishment of those who perform the labor, as it has done in other industries.

20. Sabbath Observance.

Most of the fishermen from the lower Cape towns observe the Sabbath as well as seamen can, abstaining from all needless labor. This is especially true of the mackerel men. Marked contrasts in the methods of observing the day may be seen in the port of Provincetown on almost every pleasant Sunday of

October in any year. From three to five hundred sail of fishermen will anchor in the harbor Saturday evening, and the next morning nearly every one, except the vessels belonging to Truro, Wellfleet and Provincetown, set sail for the fishing ground. The men of these places generally intend to be in a harbor on the Sabbath. If not practicable to reach harbor Saturday night, the mainsail is furled and is not hoisted till Monday morning. Prayers are sometimes holden on Sabbath eve, and religious services at other times. They do not fish, and the day is spent in quiet.

21. No direct reply to this question.

22. *Authority of the Captain.*

The success of a fishing voyage depends very much upon the tact and ability of the captain. Without proper authority, the crew take advantage, and the voyage may be a failure. The office of mate is nominal. Absolute authority is mainly necessary on account of maritime exposures, while consideration and tact are equally necessary in the interpretation of the prevailing feeling on board and its application to general and special needs.

23. *Partnership, Wage, Influence, &c.*

Once in a while there is a trial of the "own-hook" voyage, but it does not give as much satisfaction as the share system. On the own-hook lay, each man is responsible for his share of the expense; every one keeps his fish separate from the rest. The great general is averaged on the barrel, and this being taken out, three-tenths of the remainder go to the vessel. Then the small general is divided upon each man or boy in the right proportion and deducted. The remainder is his own. On this lay the captain gets an additional percentage (two and a half per cent. to four per cent.), which is paid by the owners. The captain, under this system, gets more money, but does not have so good a crew. Under the wage system the men lose nearly all interest in the voyage.

Thirty years ago, the share system was almost universal in the lower towns of the Cape. Most of the crew were sharemen. The vessels were largely owned by those who went in them. The skipper had the entire management of the vessel,

the fitting and packing, and, at the close of the season, settled with all parties. This was done without any commission or skipper'ship. In this way the profits were divided equally among a large number of the inhabitants, and success was felt by all. Those who manned the vessels were mostly citizens of the place, and had attachments and interests that worked well for the moral and social welfare of the community. Now the tendency is more towards a monopoly of the profits. The captain is no longer agent, but the fitter or some other person, directly or indirectly interested, is. There are only two or three sharesmen, the rest of the crew being gathered from all parts of the world and shipped on a lay, with nothing invested but time, and ready to leave in any port and on any occasion that suits convenience. The consequences following the change must be evident. The crews are of a lower grade of men, and the business is so arranged that a lion's share falls into the hands of a few, and the men who are not among the fortunate look for other business. Such a condition of things in a growing community affects the moral and social status of society always for the worse. Immorality and dissipation keep pace with the reduction of interest in the voyage caused by small lays and extra charges in the items of expense. The towns that have retained the share system rank the highest in general intelligence and good morals.

Shore Fishing.

This interest at Provincetown is of considerable magnitude, and has three principal branches: *first*, lobster catching; *second*, the taking of mackerel in what are called mesh or gill nets; *third*, trawl fishing for cod and haddock. Lobster catching employs about seventy-five men. It commences the first of June and continues till the last of September, generally proving a lucrative and successful business.

Mackerel netting commences three or four weeks before the fish will take the hook in the spring, and continues till they bite freely in the fall, the season lasting from the middle of November, when severe cold drives the fish into deep water away from the coast. From four to six thousand barrels are thus taken every year and sold fresh in the market. The business is carried on in boats of from four to six tons, and involves severe

exposure and hard labor. Some netters in three or four weeks make a profit of from six to eight hundred dollars, but the average is much less.

The cod and haddock fishery employs some five hundred men in the catching alone. Every week day that the weather permits during the cold season, the men leave their homes the latter part of the night, and, two in a dory, proceed to the fishing ground, some seven or eight miles distant. The fishing is done with trawls from one to two thousand fathoms in length. Firms engaged in the forwarding business buy the fish, one firm taking the product of thirteen dories, another of twenty, and two others of twenty-five. From $62\frac{1}{2}$ cents to \$2 50 per hundred pounds is paid the fishermen, and the average catch per day, in a good day, may be set at one thousand pounds.

Observations on the Partnership and Wage Systems in general.

The following views are presented by a clergyman who is familiar with industrial life in both manufacturing and fishing towns :—

“By the wage system we have great wealth for the few representing capital, and extreme poverty for the many who produce the wealth, with a constant tendency towards the widening of the separation between the two parties. This tendency, followed out, engenders mutual animosities and threatens to upheave the very foundations of the social compact. In this emergency we look to the coöperative or partnership system for our remedy.

“Under one form or another the system has been tried, but not always with the desired results. The whale fishery was inaugurated upon the coöperative principle of compensation. Officers and men were remunerated according to the success of the voyage, not equitably, perhaps, for one man had a lay ten times larger than another, who was expected to be just as faithful and to work just as hard. Still it was essentially coöperative. The wealth derived largely remunerated not only capitalists and officers, but common seamen, until there was a departure from the original principle. Officers were given a lay twenty times greater than was allowed to men before the mast. Outfitters, sharks and slop-chests soon destroyed the last hope of the men who were expected to do the work necessary to make a voyage successful. A mere pretence of honesty was all that could be shown by the men who monopolized the profits and combined against the interests of the more depen-

dent class. It was impossible to escape the extortions of outfitters. A percentage of all sales went to the capitalists. This organized monopoly extended to tailors, boot-makers, barbers, and even to brothel keepers,—men in good standing in Christian churches receiving a percentage from brothels. To-day the whale fishery of New Bedford is called coöperative, but the sun shines not on a more gigantic fraud or unscrupulous pretence than this same business. Its dishonesty is complete; its virus of injustice has stricken the whole community with the filth of its abominable baseness. It can safely be affirmed, that the deplorable condition of the business is more due to a departure from right principles in its conduct, than to a change of circumstances. Confirmatory of this is the fact that after the change in policy at New Bedford, and after it had ceased as a business to be remunerative there, it was inaugurated on the old principle at Provincetown, and for more than ten years was eminently successful there. It continued to be so until the coöperative principle was departed from and supplanted by the old injustice and iniquity. Then the same pecuniary losses occurred in Provincetown which had attended the change in New Bedford.

“But we are thankful that there is an example left of what can be wrought by the adoption of the coöperative principle. The town of Wellfleet is so situated as to have no resource for gaining a subsistence or amassing wealth other than by the sea. For years her principal business has been mackerel fishing, and it has been carried on entirely upon the system of having every man share in the profits of the catch. The town has no endowed institutions and few men of great wealth; but for distribution of wealth among the many, and the absence of real poverty, she stands immeasurably above any manufacturing community in the Commonwealth. Yet these are not the only advantages reaped. The homes of the people are uniformly the most comfortable, well kept and healthy the writer has ever seen. The general standard of intelligence, enterprise and moral culture is far ahead of communities where the wage system prevails. The young men grow up with individuality and independence of character. Their enterprise and ability lead them readily to positions of honor and usefulness. The qualities developed are of the very sort needed to build up a State, and the results described have taken place while the people have depended on a single branch of business, and that fickle, uncertain and extending through little more than half the year. With coöperative manufacturing in the dull season, her attainments in the shape of diffusive wealth would long since have been marvellous.

“These observations, and the reflections of years, have led the

writer to the conclusion that the true policy of labor lies in partnership or coöperation. The constant tendency to degrade labor by employing first a dependent class, and then one still more dependent, to increase the tasks and reduce the compensation therefor, the alienations, separations and hatreds engendered, the tendency to concentrate wealth in few hands and to entail a condition of poverty on those who toil under the wage system, all these things are enough to alarm every lover of his race, and prompt all to the use of every available means for instituting a system in which the interests of all may be secured and these divergences be avoided.

“The factory labor performed by women and children is too exhaustive. It is useless to deny it. The State should not allow human beings to be sacrificed under it. If, in the protection of the defenceless, it is necessary to restrict labor to fewer hours a day, it should be done. The burdens of those who labor are something heavier than merely ill-compensated service. Work is made a drudgery. The factory toiler is slighted, shoved aside, despised. He hears vague talk about the honor of labor, but sees nothing of the sort in it, or any attempt to make it honorable. He has no moral incentive to make his exhaustive toil endurable. Shorter days of service would only relieve him in part. The power of caste would still repel him from the society of those who are able to lead an easier life. Said a girl laboring in a mill: ‘I can make out to subsist upon the pittance paid me, and that is all. But why should they whom my labor helps to clothe and to live without toil, respect me less than the poodle which they pet and which shares their seat in their coach? My character is above reproach, and yet I know the contempt in which we who work are held, and this more than anything else makes labor a burden without dignity, spite of the talk of orators about the “dignity of labor.” We mill folk don’t see it, but we do see and know that it is really and practically a contempt.’ Now the laborer needs and is entitled to our kindness and respect, and there is no way so sure to make good his title as to elevate him to an ownership in his employment, as in the fishing business. He needs to sustain such a relation to his calling that he shall respect himself and be respected by others. How can the two now diverging classes be brought into harmony, so that each shall act for the good of the other, unless all become participants in the responsibilities and gains of the business?”

“Men are not despised for laboring when they are working to advance an enterprise of their own. Under the same circumstances exhaustive labor would be less severely felt. The factory operative looks into a future so threatening that his heart fails within him.

Under the cheerful stimulus of hope, his ability to do would be vastly increased, and labor everywhere would feel the magic touch of a new-born inspiration.

“There is need of immediate legislation. The State should not permit her own destruction through the ruin of her laboring classes. The present tendency to the degradation of labor is one reckless of the future. The efforts to secure labor at a cheaper and still cheaper rate, only separates still more widely the classes representing capital and labor. There ought to be a formidable political and Christian sentiment drawn out into solid array against these abominable and growing wrongs. The people, so much enlightened on many subjects, need education upon political economy in its bearings upon the relations of capital to labor. Good citizens and good people need such instruction as will lead to radical and saving change. Agencies should be established to arbitrate between conflicting parties, so that there may be no more ‘strikes’ or conflicts. The public lectures of every large manufacturing town should provide for the treatment of this subject.

“Besides making an effort to organize business on the coöperative plan, appeals should be made to noble, high-minded men, already engaged in manufacturing, to become still more liberal in their policy by compensation in proportion to profits. The monthly compensation could be paid, and at the end of the year a portion be divided among the laborers, as the business would allow. All would then become interested partners, time and material would be saved, labor would be relieved of its conditions of oppression, habits of economy would be encouraged, and the character improved by an abandonment of those immoral and intemperate habits that render the wage system so demoralizing to the laborer, who, by his hostile feeling, is placed beyond the reach of any influence for good from his employer.”

In the articles of agreement under which the Pilgrims came to America we find the following: “That at their coming there, they chose out such a number of fitt persons, as may furnish their ships and boats for fishing upon y^e sea.” The preceding clause in the agreement shows the origin of the share system, and is as follows:—

“The persons transported & y^e adventurers shall continue their joint stock & partnership together y^e space of 7 years (except some unexpected impedimente doe cause y^e whole company to agree otherwise), during which time all profitts & benefitts that

are gott by trade, traffick, trucking, working, fishing, or any other means of any person or persons, remaine still in y^e comone stock untill y^e division.” *

In 1675, there were engaged in the fisheries 675 vessels, of 25,650 tons, and carrying 4,405 seamen; the product was 350,000 to 400,000 cwt., valued at about \$1,000,000. In 1789, 371,319 cwt. of fish were exported from the United States. It was in this year that this State petitioned congress for what was long known as the Bounty Act. This Act was passed July 4, 1789. From this beginning have grown the extensive fishing interests, and with it alone has continued the system of share, or copartnership.

DIVISION II. LAND TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION.
SUBDIVISION I. *Coach or Omnibus Lines.*

Under this heading we give the return of the party employing a much larger number of men than any other in the State, so far as we know—the Citizens’ Line of Boston—with a capital invested of \$150,000 :—

TABLE I.—*Wages of Drivers, &c.*

28 Drivers, at	\$1 75 per day.
19 Hostlers,	1 42 “
6 Blacksmiths,	2 39 “
5 Assistants,	2 80 “
2 Laborers,	1 67 “

The regular force is 60 men ; there are about ten substitutes, who are employed when any one is off duty ; 33 are of native, and 27 of foreign birth. The hours of labor are from 10 to 15 per day. These coaches do not run on Sundays.

Most of the drivers take their breakfast before going on duty ; some make one trip before ; the earliest starting time being 6.15 A. M. From 30 to 40 minutes are given for dinner and tea. They commence going off duty at 9.30 P. M., the last coach coming to a stop at 11.30, those going on earliest in the morning going off first at night.

* From Russell's Pilgrim Memorial.

The average length of service of a horse is five years. There are two to a team. Each trip gives seven miles of travel. The number of trips to each team is alternately two and three, giving one day fourteen miles of travel and another twenty-one, an average of seventeen and a half per day. The time consumed in travel per day is from four to six hours for each horse.

SUBDIVISION II. *Express and Teaming.*

Number of Blanks sent,*	5
"	"	returned,	3
"	"	Employés,	81

TABLE II.—*Wages of Expressmen, &c.*

OCCUPATION.	Number.	WAGES.		Average per Month.
		Highest.	Lowest.	
Clerks,	15	\$100 00	\$30 00	\$75 00
Drivers,	12	70 00	50 00	65 00
Messengers,	20	75 00	60 00	65 00

The average number of hours on duty is about twelve per day. Payments of wages are made on the first of every month. The situations are generally permanent. A practical education and considerable tact and knowledge of human nature are required of employés. A few avenues of promotion are open as rewards for special talents.

The general wages of teamsters, the State through, is \$2 per day. In Boston our returns give \$1.66, \$4.12 and \$2.25 per day. Three employing firms hire fifty-nine men, more than half of whom are of foreign birth. Sixty hours per week is the time rule. Pay-roll distribution of two firms gives \$1.42 per day. One employer, with a force of thirty-seven, reports twenty as unable to read or write.

SUBDIVISION III. *Hack and Livery.*

In this department the classes employed and wages given are as follows, the returns obtained being in Boston: hostlers, \$2;

* Only a representative firm is given.

helpers, \$2.25; drivers, \$2. A few young persons employed receive 75 cents per day. The hours of service are irregular; one return gives the hours per week as ninety-one.

SUBDIVISION IV. *Horse Railroads.*

The following figures are obtained from the largest corporation of its kind in the State. The whole number employed is 470, the force often reaching 500.

TABLE III.

OCCUPATION.	No. of Persons in each Class.	WAGES PER DAY.			Hours.
		Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	
Wood Workers, . . .	18	\$2 50	—	—	10
Car Repairers, . . .	3	2 50	—	—	10
Carpenters,	2	—	\$2 50	\$2 00	10
Painters,	10	2 50	3 00	2 00	10
Harness Makers, . . .	3	2 50	3 00	2 00	10
Starters,	9	1 75	2 00	1 75	12
Horse Shoers, . . .	17	2 50	3 00	2 00	10
Blacksmiths,	12	2 50	3 00	2 00	10
Shifters,	7	1 75	—	—	12
Hostlers,	56	1 45	—	—	12
Watchmen,	30	1 45	2 00	1 45	12
Feeders,	6	1 75	—	—	12
Tow Riders and Water Boys,	12	1 00	1 45	70	12
Switchmen,	12	1 30	—	—	12
Track Cleaners, . . .	6	1 30	—	—	12
Conductors,	108	1 75	2 00	1 75	8 to 15
Drivers,	108	1 75	—	—	8 to 15
Millers,	2	—	3 00	2 50	10
Harness Cleaners, . . .	3	—	1 70	1 45	10

TABLE III—*Concluded.*

OCCUPATION.	No. of Persons in each Class.	WAGES PER DAY.			Hours.
		Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	
Helpers, Pavers, Tenders, .	20	\$2 00	\$2 50	\$1 75	10
Trackmen,	20	2 00	2 50	1 75	10
Clerks,	2	—	2 87	1 67	10
Secretary,	1	6 85	—	—	—
Treasurer,	1	9 55	—	—	—
Superintendent,	1	9 55	—	—	—
President,	1	10 95	—	—	—

Another corporation gives a classification as follows, with essentially the same rate of wage:—

Whole number employed, 142; president, 1; secretary and treasurer, 1; superintendent, 1; clerk, 1; receivers, 2; conductors, 39; drivers, 39; stable foreman, 1; starters, 2; watchmen and feeders, 6; hostlers, 21; helpers, 5; track repairers, 3; mechanics, 20.

An Essex County line reports the following:—

TABLE IV.

OCCUPATION.	Number.	Wages.
President,	1	\$3 25
Treasurer,	1	3 25
Superintendent,	1	5 75
Assistant-Superintendent,	1	2 25
Conductors,	4	1 67
Drivers,	11	1 67
Watchmen,	1	1 50
Switchmen,	1	1 50
Hostlers,	6	1 50

NOTE.—The hours of labor are about ten per day. An hour is allowed for dinner. Payments are made monthly. All can read and write. Conductors and drivers are on duty every other Sunday. Twenty-four of the twenty-seven are married. All are strictly temperate.

A horse car superintendent remarks as follows:—

“ Our equipment consists of over 900 horses and some 108 cars. The shortest trip requires 45 minutes; the longest two hours. Every conductor and driver loses a trip for dinner, which gives him from half an hour to an hour and a half of time. Their hours of work are from 12 to 15. Most of the hands live near the stables, though some, especially those on duty the fewest hours, live two or three miles away. The best class for drivers are green men who come in from the farm, and have no trade. Never having had much money, \$12.25 per week seems a good deal to them. The oldest driver we have is 78 years old; he used to be on an omnibus line. Some don't stay more than a week. A driver can take a vacation any time, as from 15 to 20 spare men are always in waiting for a job. Conductors require education enough to keep accounts in order, a record being kept, and a settlement made at the office after every trip. We have a good deal of loss through conductors' stealings; in these the drivers share. Don't think it would be any improvement to pay better wages; they would be no more honest, whatever was paid. Additional wages bring increased wants, but a quarter of a dollar a day don't amount to much. We have as conductors and drivers broken-down merchants, ministers, and lawyers, and men from all professions and walks in life. We don't like to take married men; they don't give as close attention to business as single men, and make us much more trouble. In general there are no inducements to special faithfulness on account of possible promotion. There are some berths easier than others, and these are given to the best men so far as we know them. Engagements are made for no definite time. The men are all paid once a week, upon the day basis. Settlements are made every Tuesday up to the preceding Saturday night. A man can come and go as he pleases. Sometimes we have had cars left in the street with no one in charge. We pay a dividend of ten per cent.”

A conductor on one of the South Boston cars gives his wages as \$1.75 per day. Is a young fellow, and is saving up money to get an education. Gets up at 5.30 A. M., and goes on duty at 6.40, remaining on until 7.30 P. M. Gets very much exhausted often, and has to be waked up in the morning by a friend who is a watchman. Has to snatch his dinner and eat it very hurriedly from lack of time. Runs his car every day in the week. If he falls out of his turn any time, by not being

promptly on hand, has to make a change that confines him from 12 to 16 hours, and if there is a repetition of the offence beyond a certain point, he has to take his place with the spare men, and run his chance of getting on again. The time tables of the road show a range of from 11 to 17 hours.

A conductor on a Swampscott car makes three trips, and is on duty 13 hours a day. Gets \$1.75. Has followed the business 18 years; has plenty of time for meals; does not find the life very hard. The situation on the country horse cars is evidently less tedious, and full as well paid as on the city lines. A driver in Springfield, who is conductor as well, receives \$2 per day.

SUBDIVISION V. *Steam Railroads.*

TABLE V.—*Wages on Road No. 1.*

CLASSES.	Wages.
Enginemen,	\$3 50 per day.
Firemen,	2 00 “
Mechanics,	2 75 “
Day Laborers,	1 65 “
Baggage Masters,	50 00 per month.
Brakemen,	45 00 “
Conductors,	80 00 “
Gate Keepers,	40 00 “
Signal Men,	45 00 “
Station Men,	75 00 “
Switchmen,	47 50 “
Watchmen,	52 50 “

NOTE.—Average number employed, about 900. One-eighth are foreign born. All are males and of mature age. With mechanics, the rule is ten hours per day; with others, time not stated. About one hundred can neither read nor write. Wage distribution for six months of year \$2 per day per man.

TABLE VI.—*Wages on Road No. 2.*

OCCUPATION.	Number.	WAGES.		
		Highest.	Lowest.	Average.
Mechanics,	153	\$4 00	\$2 25	\$2 60
Engineers and Firemen,	84	4 00	1 75	2 60
Clerks,	33	6 41	1 75	2 50
Conductors, Brakemen and Baggage Masters,	95	3 20	1 65	2 25
Station Agents,	91	5 77	66	1 80
Laborers,	313	2 00	1 50	1 75

NOTE —Whole number employed, 769. Where the limitation is practicable, the hours of labor are ten per day, with the usual hour for dinner.

DIVISION III. WATER TRAVEL AND TRANSPORTATION.

SUBDIVISION I.—*Ferry and Tug Boats.*

The working force of a single boat, and the wages paid on one of the lines, is given as follows:—

One pilot, at	\$90 per month.
One engineer, at	85 “ “
One fireman, at	55 “ “
Two deck hands, at	50 “ “

The average hours of labor per day are nine.

Tug boats usually employ about four men each, as follows:—

A captain, at \$100 per month; an engineer at from \$60 to \$80; a deck hand, at from \$35 to \$40; and a fireman at \$30.

These men all board on shore.

SUBDIVISION II —*Sailing Vessels.*

These may be classified as foreign and coastwise. The custom is for the owners to employ shipping agents to engage the crews for manning their ships.

The complement for a clipper ship of 840 tons, bound for Calcutta, is given herewith, with wages of officers and men:—

TABLE VII.

CLASSIFICATION.	Number.	WAGES PER MONTH.		
		Highest.	Lowest.	Average.
Master,	1	\$250 00	\$60 00	\$200 00
Chief Officer,	1	60 00	40 00	55 00
Second Officer,	1	45 00	35 00	35 00
Steward,	1	—	—	35 00
Cook,	1	35 00	30 00	30 00
Carpenter,	1	—	—	30 00
Ordinary Seamen,	2	—	—	15 00
Able Seamen,	10	25 00	20 00	20 00

NOTE.—Most captains are owners, and have a percentage. It is seldom that any other officer is an owner. Where no highest or lowest is given the average represents the common rate.

The wages of the officers and crew of a coasting vessel, a brig, bound for Cuba, are given as follows:—

TABLE VIII.

OCCUPATION.	Number.	Wages per Month.
Master,	1	Usually an owner.
Mate,	1	\$45 00
Second Mate,	1	35 00
Steward and Cook,	1	35 00
Seamen,	4	20 00

NOTE.—Sometimes mates receive only \$40 and second mates only \$30 a month. The best wages paid seamen are \$25 a month.

Very few Americans now ship before the mast. Most are Scandinavians and North Germans, with many English and some Irish. Foreign voyages are from 12 to 15 months in

duration. Pay commences with day of going on board, and ends the day of reaching port, unless previously discharged by the captain. On long voyages two months' advance is given in the shape of an order made payable to the bearer on condition that the party taking it out, appears in good faith when the ship sets sail. These orders usually go into the hands of the boarding-house keepers, to pay for debts contracted while ashore. Forty cents a month is deducted for hospital money. The master usually takes supplies on board, clothing, tobacco, etc., which he sells the crew on account at an exorbitant advance. Jack is given to sprees when in port as much as ever. For his shore accommodation, he generally has to pay \$1 a day. The landlords have a good deal to do with regulating wages, because they always have men on hand, and when direct applicants are few, the shipping agents have to go to the boarding-houses for crews. The rates are ruling lower at this season (Feb.) than usual, there are so few vessels going out; but it is expected that the transfer of men to fishing vessels will soon raise the wages of seamen \$5 dollars per month. Partial payments are made on account, and full settlements are effected at the end of the voyage.

SUBDIVISION III.—*Steam Vessels.*

A company having three steamers on its line gives the following as the complement of each vessel:—

TABLE IX.

OCCUPATION.	Number.	Wages per Month.
Captain,	1	\$200 00
Mate,	1	75 00
Second Mate,	1	50 00
Wheelmen and Quartermasters,	2	35 00
Deck hands,	6	30 00
Steward,	1	40 00
Cook,	1	40 00
Waiter,	1	25 00
First Engineer,	1	100 00
Second Engineer,	1	75 00
Firemen and Coal Passers,	6	40 00 to 30 00
Oilers,	2	45 00

All are paid the first of the month. On the wharf 43 stevedores and laborers are employed, the former hired by the month at wages varying from \$90 to \$150; the latter by the week at \$10.

CLASS III.—DOMESTIC LABOR AND WOMEN'S WORK.

DIVISION 1. HOUSE WORK.

DIVISION 2. HOTEL AND SALOON WORK.

DIVISION 3. HOME WORK.

DIVISION 4. STORE WORK.

DIVISION 5. SHOP AND MANUFACTURING WORK.

Number of establishments visited, . . . 1,440.

INTRODUCTION.

A few words are necessary to explain the scope and limit of the investigations whose results are herein given, as well as the method of conducting them. Highly important as we believed it to be to obtain the facts regarding women's work and wages throughout the State, especially as so large a majority of its inhabitants are women, it became evident that in the short time at our disposal, choice must be made between a thorough examination of a limited space, or a very superficial investigation of the whole State.

We therefore confined our researches to the city of Boston, and no pains have been spared to make them, so far as they go, exhaustive and reliable. We first endeavored to find out every branch of labor in which women are employed; second, the kind of work; third, the wages received; fourth, whether the work was steady or otherwise; fifth, how their earnings enabled them to live, and to what they resorted when their regular work failed.

In obtaining the amount of wages our information was sought from both employer and employed. Many of the work-women have been visited in their homes, and we speak from actual observation of their means and methods of living.

In the recognized trades in which women are employed in large numbers, we have gathered the facts concerning several representative firms, and taken them as a sample of the rest. Especial pains have been devoted to getting the statistics of the

best paying manufacturing establishments as well as the poorest, and, in short, to make a fair average.

DIVISION I. HOUSE WORK.

SUBDIVISION I. *Regular Work.*

This class of workers live, as a rule, in greater comfort than any other ; that is, their food is better, lodgings more comfortable, and their wages enable them to dress neatly and comfortably and to save something.

The kind and amount of labor which they are expected to perform as an equivalent for this, depends entirely upon the family in which they work. Where two or more servants are employed, the work is not often arduous compared with other avocations, though always confining. But in most cases, where the girl is hired for general housework, she needs good health and strength to enable her to do what is required. It is therefore not unusual for her, so situated, to break down, although, when the labor is not excessive, it is one of the most healthful employments in which women are engaged. There are places for general housework where the family is small, the mistress reasonable and considerate, and where the work is not beyond a woman's ordinary strength. In such places it is not uncommon for a good and capable girl to stay for years, with comfort and advantage to herself and her employer. But there are many others where the work is never done, where the servant is regarded only as a machine for the turning off of every kind of work, and where the idea of saving her trouble or lightening her work, is one which apparently never enters the mind of her mistress. Of course, such mistresses are not ladies in the true sense of that word. The higher the culture of the woman, the more true the gentility of the mistress, the more will she look upon her servants as human beings, with natures like her own, with like needs and desires, and the less likely will she be to treat them with injustice or selfishness. Families are known where servants have all the privileges of the books of the library, of the parlor, or of any room in the house, when not occupied in their work. They are also allowed to receive their friends and companions in their own part of the house when it does not interfere with their work, besides being allowed one afternoon and every other Sunday for themselves. These families, as a rule,

employ only trained domestics. They pay the highest prices and demand the best skilled labor. Instances are known where the faithful domestic received, during sickness, or injury by accident, kind attention and all needed nursing, not being required to go away from the family. An inexperienced girl must expect, during the time of her inexpertness, to put up with an inferior place and low wages.

Many who try this kind of labor become discouraged, and prefer the greater freedom and independence of the shop-girl, even if accompanied with her discomforts and privations. Especially is this true of the American girl, whose inherited love of freedom leads her to suffer much before placing herself in a position where she readily perceives tyranny to be possible. She does not always avoid it by the change.

We are convinced that all that is necessary to good relations between mistress and maid, is a more enlightened understanding on both sides, and a little of the philanthropy of "putting ourselves in others' places." This would quickly do away with much of the antagonism between employer and employed, and the feeling that makes one person look upon another as a natural enemy, instead of recognizing the bond of a common sisterhood and a mutual dependence.

The following are the average wages paid in families employing four or more female domestics: The cook receives from \$9 to \$7 per week; the seamstress, \$4; the nursery-maid, \$3; chambermaid, \$3 to \$2 50; the kitchen girls, \$3 to \$2. We found one family employing seven domestics, with wages ranging from \$9 to \$3 per week. Where there are but two employed, the wages run from \$4 to \$3. Girls doing general housework command from \$3.50 to \$1.75—generally about \$3. Most domestics desire to work where there are more than one employed.

Family seamstresses command from \$1.75 to 50 cents per day, according to their skill. The higher prices are paid only to those who work on dresses, and who might, perhaps, be more properly styled dressmakers. As a rule, seamstresses take their meals where they work, but furnish themselves with lodging. Their employment is very precarious, and it is almost impossible to form an estimate of their earnings. Few with whom we have talked, had kept any account thereof, and still fewer had any savings at the year's end.

SUBDIVISION II. *Transient.*

Women who go out scrubbing and washing, work by the hour, earning from 13 to 17 cents per hour. Those who are fortunate in securing regular places of employment, such as cleaning depots, business offices, &c., &c., make from \$7 to \$4.50 per week. In some cases, these women receive the same pay for less work in the winter months, by reason of the danger of exposure.

Next come those who do the regular washing of families every week, and lastly come the much larger class who depend upon chance work, getting, some of them twenty to fifteen, and some only three hours' work per week. On the scant earnings of this class, it is notorious that many families are compelled to subsist, especially in the winter season, because the husband and father can get no work.

DIVISION II. HOTEL AND SALOON.

SUBDIVISION I. *Hotels.*

Hotel work is divided into five parts, viz.: The house-keeper's, whose duties are to superintend and give direction to all work performed in the house by the girls. Wages average \$12 per week; hours of labor per day, 12 to 14. Cooks command \$9 to \$10 per week; hours of labor do not exceed 9, unless for extra occasions, for which they receive extra pay. Table girls' duties are to keep the dining halls in order, and tables arranged at all hours. This work is not so laborious as confining; hours of labor average 70 per week, and frequently during the winter months, 80 per week; wages \$27 per month; girls allowed one afternoon per week. Chambermaids' work is to keep in order a certain number of sleeping apartments, requiring their special attendance in the house at all hours, unless some other girl, doing the same kind of work, volunteers to do the work of the absentee. An efficient chambermaid commands \$25 per month in a first-class hotel. They are not liable to be discharged, and in many instances have remained for years. In appreciation of their labors they receive, from patrons of the house whose rooms are in their charge, presents to the value of from \$100 to \$50 per year. The work of laundresses is very laborious, as they wash and iron every day in the week; wages average \$4 per week. Hours of labor, 10 per day. Allowed their evenings after work is finished.

Kitchen girls' work is confined to the kitchen wholly; their duties are various, serving the cook as she may desire, and washing all the dishes of the house, with the exception of the silver and glass, scrubbing stairs and floors, &c., &c. They are allowed one Sunday per month, as a rule, and the little time they may gain during an afternoon and evening; wages \$3 to \$4 per week. Changes occur more frequently in this class, because the work is so confining, and done in many cases in damp basements.

Housekeepers have observed this fact among their girls, that when they continue steadily for a few years doing kitchen work, though apparently strong, they suddenly fall into a decline and die in a few weeks.

SUBDIVISION II. *Restaurants and Saloons.*

Girls employed in ice-cream saloons and eating-houses work, on an average, 12 hours per day. They receive, in first-class saloons, from \$4 to \$3 dollars per week, beside table-board. Some of these establishments board and lodge their girls, and provide opportunity for them to do their washing. They pay \$3.50 per week to the expert, \$3 to the inexpert. This work is steady the year round. If a girl takes a vacation, her wages cease till her return.

DIVISION III. HOME WORK.

SUBDIVISION I. *Sale Work.*

It is well known that women, whether in town or country, who do work at their houses, receive, as a rule, less pay for the same work than the girls who work in shops. A great deal of Boston work, clothing and other, is sent out to different parts of New England, because it can be done more cheaply at country homes than in town. For instance, eight or ten years ago, the country storekeepers, experiencing the difficulty of getting ready cash for their sales, and being overburdened with agricultural products, introduced, through the direction of the Boston clothing trade, the making of clothing among their female customers, as a means of earning funds to meet the necessary store purchases. From very small beginnings, this has grown to gigantic proportions. The goods, cut and boxed, are sent to regular agents who distribute them among the farmers' and mechanics' wives and daughters. They make the garments and

receive from the agent the ready cash. The goods thus made are re-shipped to Boston. This system has been found to work much more successfully than the employment of regular hands in large cities. About \$2,000,000 were paid out for labor in Maine and New Hampshire by the clothing trade during 1870. The money thus earned is less for absolute support, than for aid to gratify some desire, and to make some addition to the comfort or refinement of the household, or to aid in education of self, child, or relative. Were wage or earnings on such a basis of justice, that instead of getting the least amount of money for the greatest amount of work, the husband and father could earn all that is needed to meet the proper and justifiable demands of his family, not only of food and raiment, but of reasonable refinement, this outside work would not come in to keep down wage. The contrast is between women working at their own comfortable country homes, at such hours as they please, and women working in a town attic, at many and forced hours, without comfort of heat, or even of proper food or light, each at hand-work and at wages depressed to 4 cents a shirt, and 3 shirts a day, wages that must be accepted by the city worker, as her only protection, if even that, from starvation or infamy.

The variety of work taken home is very great, embracing almost every article manufactured by the needle. Embroiderers of flannel and cambric are among those who earn the most, making from \$3 to \$7 per week. But work is precarious, as it is in every other department, some having regular seasons, others depending upon the state of trade and the orders received by contractors. We found women making bed-comfortables for 20 cents a piece, a smart woman making one a day. Linen coats are made for 8 cents a piece; pants for 10 cents a pair, and the list might be indefinitely extended, but it would be merely repetition. This work is universally done upon a machine, and this only renders it possible to live at it, if the word *live* may be used at all.

We found persons who had no machines, making woollen shirts at 4 cents a piece, being mostly girls out of employment at their regular business. Should they attempt to obtain a machine in response to the advertisements "sewing machines for sale and paid for in work," they are liable to such imposi-

tion as came under our own observation in the following cases. A girl bought a machine, paying part in money, and the agent agreeing to furnish her with work to the amount of \$5 per month till the whole was paid for. He failed to furnish the work, and after \$40 had been paid, the machine was taken away in default of the remaining \$25. The girl appealed to a lawyer, and found that what she supposed to be the bill of sale of the machine, was merely waste paper, giving her no claim whatever, and law being too expensive a resort, the matter was dropped. Another girl took one from an employment office, paying \$15 down. After three weeks the machine was taken away without refunding the money, and the girl was unable to obtain any satisfaction. These matters are mentioned to show some of the obstacles in the way of those who have their living to seek, and to record the fact that there are such fraudulent practices.

Women who take washing at home, especially fine washing, do better than many others, earning more money in the same time. If they are skilful and obtain plenty of work, they earn a comfortable living.

DIVISION IV. STORE WORK.

SUBDIVISION I. Accountants.

The pay of accountants ranges between \$20 and \$8 and \$6 per week, the greater number receiving less than \$12. There is an exceptional class, entrusted with special responsibilities, to whom salaries are paid, at a rate of pay higher than \$20 per week. The hours of labor vary from 7 to 12 per day.

SUBDIVISION II. Cash Girls.

TABLE I.—Wages of Cash and Errand Girls.

NUMBER EMPLOYED.	Wages per Week.	NUMBER EMPLOYED.	Wages per Week.
173	\$3 50	95	\$2 50
193	3 00	104	2 00
Hours of labor, about	.	.	10
Number of establishments visited,	.	.	115
of employes, .	.	.	565

These girls are quite young, their ages ranging between 8 and 12 years. Their situation is a very menial one, and they are the victims of much abuse and neglect. They seldom receive promotion in the stores, but find their next avenue of employment in the shops and manufactories. Very few ever go out to domestic service as they grow older.

SUBDIVISION III. *Saleswomen.*TABLE II.—*Wages of Saleswomen.*

NUMBER EMPLOYED.	Wages per Week.	NUMBER EMPLOYED.	Wages per Week.
58	\$12 00	440	\$7 00
90	10 00	304	6 00
36	9 00	116	5 00
242	8 00	256	4 50
<hr/>			
Number of establishments visited,		293
of employés,	1,542
Hours of labor, about	10 to 11

Saleswomen have one great advantage over those engaged in other employments, in the fact that their work, as a rule, lasts the year round. They are less liable to reduction of wages, and can better calculate what will be the amount of their earnings for the year. But their wages are often inadequate to their support, specially as they are obliged, in order to keep their position, to dress well and maintain a somewhat stylish appearance. In the best firms they earn \$10 and \$9 per week; none over this, unless persons at the head of a department, who sometimes command \$15 and \$12 per week. Employers who pay these prices to clerks, *give them eight weeks' vacation per year without reduction of wages.* But these girls have staid for years in the same place, are superior saleswomen, and valuable to their employers.

In the majority of stores, wages range from \$8 to \$4.50 per week. In stores paying those prices, the work is usually harder and the working day longer; sales department larger, and

more responsible, oftentimes requiring the labor of an hour, after the day's sales have closed, to arrange for the next day's work, thus prolonging the day to 11 hours.

In many stores, not only are the wages deducted during vacation, but the clerks are *obliged* to take a vacation of six weeks yearly, whether they desire it or not, and take it at the time which their employers choose to select. In many of these stores, clerks are allowed but twenty minutes for dinner, which necessitates their carrying a lunch. In one store (and so far as we know only one), a dining-room is provided, with the opportunity of warming the food they may bring, and of buying hot tea and coffee of a person in attendance. This is also the only store where there are proper accommodations, stores being worse provided, in this important respect, than shops.

One large firm, having three stores, has made the rule that if a girl is fifteen minutes late, she shall lose one quarter of a day's pay. It is against the rules, in many places, for a girl to sit down while she is in the store, whether she individually has anything to do or not. The work is arduous in the busy season, or when taking account of stock. At such times girls have been kept measuring cotton cloth until they have fallen faint to the floor. In one known instance it was three-quarters of an hour before the girl was able to resume her work, and for this loss of time, her employer *deducted a quarter of a day's wages!* *

DIVISION V. SHOP AND MANUFACTURING WORK.

The work-rooms of this division are almost always up three or four flights of stairs, and are filled with women as closely as they can sit at their work. They have no means of ventilation except by the windows, which are frequently on but one side of the room, and in many cases incapable of being opened excepting at the lower sash. Fully one-half of these rooms are without water-closets or water for drinking. In many instances where they have water, the women supply their own ice. The hours of labor in the shops are almost invariably 10, but in those shops where work is done by the piece, nearly all the

* "Father Abraham! what are these Christians,
Whose own hard dealings teach them to suspect
The thoughts of others?"

Merchant of Venice, Act I., Scene III.

women take work home to do in the evening. Many thus work from 12 to 14 hours a day to earn the sums with which they are credited on the books of the firm.

The wages differ widely, according to the employment and skill of the employées, ranging from \$15 to \$1.50 per week. *It is fully ascertained that there are some who do not earn more than \$1.50 per week.* The fact that so very large a proportion of the employments in which women are engaged, last but half, or less than half the year, is one of the first to which our attention has been called. It is the cause of very much of the suffering and crime that prevail. When we are told that girls earn \$6, \$10, or even \$15 a week, it has a comfortable sound, if unconnected with its accompanying fact *that it is from sixteen to thirty-four weeks of the year only* that they earn these wages, very few earning \$15. There is a great disproportion between the yearly earnings and the weekly wages. For instance, milliners earn from \$20 to \$3 per week, but the season lasts only sixteen weeks. After that time a few are retained, but the majority are immediately discharged. In other trades the seasons are twenty, twenty-four and thirty-four weeks per year. But from all the dress-making, cap-making, cloak and paper-collar establishments in the city, a large portion of the employées are turned away, unable, for nearly or quite half the year, to obtain any employment, and the circumstances specially distressing are, that the dull season occurs in nearly all these trades *at about the same time*, destroying all chance of obtaining employment at any price at some other occupation, even were they fit for that other. The fancy-goods stores are a partial exception to this rule, they taking on a few extra hands for the holidays, but after New Year's day reducing the number of employées. A few fortunate ones only, they, of course, the best work-women, are occasionally retained. If paid by the week their wages are reduced; if by the piece, the scanty amount of work furnished effects the same results of hardship. A few women who have parents to whose homes they can flee, without paying board, when work fails are able to save money. A few more, who are able to obtain work all through the dull season at the highest wages above named, can do the same. But it is readily perceived that a woman commanding \$15 a week earns in twenty-four weeks but \$360, which sum does not leave much margin

for savings. This is supposing all these women to be of robust health, and capable of working from 12 to 14 hours every day while the season lasts. How far this supposition is from the fact, it needs but a glance into any large manufacturing establishment to perceive. If these prices commanded by the few leave small margin for the "rainy day," to which all are liable, it is a fearful inquiry what becomes of the vast numbers discharged from employment twice a year, whose earnings have amounted to but \$6, \$5, \$4, \$3 and \$1 50 a week!

Not a few cases have come under our personal observation, where insufficient food and the want of proper clothing have ended in a death that could be called nothing but starvation; and, alas, many more have confessed to us, some with shame and remorse, others with the defiant question, "What else could I do?" *that they had sold their womanhood for bread to sustain life.* Think of this ye women who sit safely near fire-sides, delicately clothed and fed, and with every want satisfied! Realize, if you can, what it is to sit for hours far into the night, thinly clad, in a fireless room, toiling for the food that in proper supply has not passed your lips for days! Who that has not been tried, can be sure their virtue would have stood the test of hunger? The wonder is not that so many, but that so few fall!

Of one thing these researches have convinced us, that no matter how zealously missionaries may labor, or how reformatories or Magdalen asylums may be multiplied, *the root of the evil will not be reached until women's wages will supply them with the necessities and some of the comforts of life*, elevating them above the clutch of sin, and freeing them from the necessity of making merchandise of body and soul. What we have seen and heard lessens our wonder that an evil of so appalling a nature continues, for hunger and craving want are relentless foes to virtue. We execrate the hideous sin, while grieving and mourning for the sinner.

Many of these women, who earn what is called good wages, by employment as tenders in stores and saloons, seek also for sewing to take home, thus entering into competition with another class and helping to reduce their small wages. There are instances among the girls also, earning good wages in the season of work in the shop, who, when regular

work stops, make woollen shirts *for four cents apiece*. The majority of these live in cheap boarding or lodging houses, many occupying attics with three, four, and even six in one room. As a rule, there are no conveniences for a fire, unless furnished by themselves. But few can afford this, and as no privileges are given lodgers outside of their own rooms, the industrious ones who are mistresses of their evenings, and devote them to necessary sewing, or in reading, are obliged to sit in their rooms without fire, with a shawl or blanket over their shoulders while at work or study. They are oftentimes forced during the dull times to lessen their living expenses by taking their meals cold in their rooms. Under this diet instances are numerous where they become so debilitated in health, as to require medical treatment for two and three weeks at different times during the year. A case came to our notice of a sickness of nineteen weeks, and another of two weeks, with no means.

Others younger, and without needful education to a thorough keeping of their own clothing in proper order, find little in these dismal, comfortless lodging-rooms to induce them to spend their evenings in them. As a consequence, they rush heedlessly into the streets and into questionable society for recreation,—a recreation too often ending in sin.

When long out of work, and their means run low, they take lodging only, and live upon bakers' bread, with occasionally a meal at a restaurant. It is not unusual for them to come to charity or the kindness of their sister-workers. With them they live for weeks, by crowding into one bed, because unable to pay for lodging.

We append a table giving the wages of cap and hat makers, with number of employés, number of establishments visited and number of weeks of work per year.

TABLE III.—*Wages of Cap and Hat Makers.*

No. of Employees.	Wages of Cap-Makers.	No. of Employees.	Wages of Hat-Sewers.	No. of Employees.	Wages of Machine Operators.
35, . .	\$15 00*	24, . .	\$12 00*	3, . .	\$14 00*
27, . .	12 00*	12, . .	9 50*	5, . .	12 00*
30, . .	9 50	17, . .	8 00	35, . .	10 00
40, . .	7 50	27, . .	7 00	24, . .	8 00
74, . .	6 00	12, . .	6 00	9, . .	7 25
79, . .	5 00			4, . .	6 00
29, . .	4 50			12, . .	5 00
64, . .	3 25			26, . .	4 50
62, . .	2 50				
Number of establishments visited,					23
of employes,					644
of weeks of work per year,					24
of hours of labor per day,					10

* Custom work.

In this trade there is a great difference between the wages in custom and in manufacturing establishments, the former averaging from \$15 to \$9 per week, the latter from \$8 to \$2.50 per week; the season of work averages 24 weeks. Most of the workrooms are up three or four flights of stairs, with ventilation from windows only. The hours of labor per day are 10. With few exceptions, all work by the piece and carry their work home evenings, working from two to three hours additional. The majority carry their dinners in preference to going for them, owing to the long distance of boarding places and many stairs to climb.

TABLE IV.—*Wages of Cloak Makers.*

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES.	WAGES.		NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES.	WAGES.	
	Highest.	Lowest.		Highest.	Lowest.
28, . . .	\$15 00	\$14 00	169, . . .	\$7 50	\$6 00
137, . . .	13 00	12 00	130, . . .	6 00	5 00
12, . . .	12 00	10 00	40, . . .	5 00	4 00
111, . . .	11 00	10 00	7, . . .	5 65	2 30
176, . . .	10 00	9 00	97, . . .	4 50	3 00
141, . . .	9 00	8 00	42, . . .	3 00	2 75
10, . . .	9 00	7 00	24, . . .	2 00	—
180, . . .	8 00	7 00	9, . . .	1 50	—
Number of establishments visited,					12
of employes,					1,313
of weeks of work per year,					20 to 24
of hours per day,					10

As the above table indicates, the wages vary from \$15 to \$1.50 per week, the former price being paid only in very rare instances of unexceptionable skill, and during some weeks of the busiest season. The latter are given to young girls, whom we found making velveteen sacks, trimmed with satin, at 37 cents a piece. Many were unable to make more than four sacks per week, owing to inexperience and want of facility at work. There is very little opportunity for girls to learn to do work that pays better, unless some one of their shop-mates can afford time to show them. A large number earn from \$4 to \$3 a week. Most of them live with their parents, and are obliged to help in some manner to defray family expenses. On visiting them in their homes, with one exception, their circumstances were found exactly as represented. Hours of labor in the shop, 10. All work by the piece, many taking their work home and working from 2 to 3 hours in the evening.

TABLE V.—*Wages of Custom Clothing Makers.*

COAT MAKERS.			PANTS MAKERS.			VEST MAKERS.		
Number of Employees.	WAGES.		Number of Employees.	WAGES.		Number of Employees.	WAGES.	
	Highest.	Lowest.		Highest.	Lowest.		Highest.	Lowest.
26, .	\$16 00	\$15 00	4, .	\$13 00	—	3, .	\$13 00	—
7, .	14 00	13 00	16, .	12 50	\$11 00	6, .	12 00	—
4, .	14 00	12 00	38, .	12 00	10 00	25, .	12 00	\$10 00
2, .	13 00	12 00	4, .	12 00	6 00	9, .	11 50	10 00
8, .	14 00	11 00	16, .	11 50	—	27, .	10 00	9 00
10, .	13 50	—	22, .	10 00	9 00	21, .	10 00	8 00
25, .	12 00	11 00	51, .	10 00	5 00	14, .	10 00	7 50
4, .	13 00	11 00	27, .	9 00	8 00	29, .	10 00	5 50
14, .	13 00	10 00	12, .	9 00	7 00	7, .	9 50	6 00
48, .	12 00	9 50	16, .	8 00	6 00	10, .	8 00	6 00
45, .	10 50	9 00	8, .	4 50	3 75	22, .	8 00	7 50
2, .	15 00	8 00				6, .	7 00	6 00
17, .	9 00	8 00						
7, .	15 00	7 50						
15, .	14 00	7 00						
12, .	13 00	7 50						
27, .	13 00	6 00						
12, .	8 00	6 00						
16, .	12 00	4 50						
14, .	7 50	5 50						

Number of establishments visited,	27
of employes,	708
of weeks of work per year,	24
of hours per day,	10

The clothing trade employs more workwomen than any other in the city. It embraces two divisions, the manufacturing and the custom. The former requires that those working at it make a garment entire, and in the best manner. It includes three trades, viz. : vest, pantaloon and coat making. Of these, the latter is the most profitable, as it requires the most skill and the longest apprenticeship. The season of 24 weeks per year is subject to great reduction, disappointing the calculations alike of merchant and employés. Vest and pantaloon makers earn per week from \$12 to \$3.75, coat makers from \$16 to \$5.50. Hours in shop 10, nearly all taking work home and working from 2 to 4 hours besides, each evening. Instances are known of girls earning \$21 in one week at coat-making, but it was by working *fifteen hours a day*. The possibility of earning this amount would depend upon the kind of work given out, it being only the very best of work that commands this price. In the manufacturing departments, the season averages 32 weeks, but the wages paid are smaller. Here the trade is subdivided into coat-basters and finishers, pant-basters and finishers, vest-basters and finishers, machine operators, button-hole makers, and press-women.

The wages average from \$8 to \$2.75 per week. This work is much of it very laborious, especially in the overcoat season, requiring good health and strength on the part of those engaging in it.

6, .	{	40	\$6 00	40	\$7 00	84	\$5 00	56	\$6 00	50	\$5 00	-	-	30	\$8 00	8	\$8 00	5	\$8 00
		89	5 00	75	6 00	-	3 75	-	3 60	-	3 50	-	-	-	7 00	5	10 00	3	7 00
			3 69		4 30		-		-		-			-	6 00		6 00		-
7, .	{	33	6 00	30	6 00	23	5 50	61	5 00	43	4 00	-	-	9	8 00	8	8 00	4	7 00
		42	5 00	40	5 00	38	4 00	-	3 50	38	3 50	-	-	12	-	4	-	3	-
			4 50		4 50		3 75		-		5 00			-	7 00		7 00		6 00
			3 50		4 00		3 00		-		4 50			-	-		-		-
8, .	{	125	5 50	87	6 50	45	6 00	120	4 75	75	4 75	-	-	9	9 00	30	5 50	4	8 00
		105	5 00	69	5 00	35	4 50	35	4 00	55	4 00	35	\$4 75	25	-	9	4 00	-	-
			4 50		4 50		5 00		3 60		3 75		3 50		8 00		7 00	9	8 00
			4 00		4 00		3 50		-		2 75		-		-		6 00		-
9, .	{	123	6 00	105	7 00	45	6 00	23	6 50	35	4 75	-	-	10	9 00	18	8 00	9	7 00
		85	4 00	63	5 00	100	4 00	125	6 00	75	3 50	-	-	11	-	3	-	3	-
			5 50		6 00		5 00		5 50		4 00				8 00		7 00		7 00
			5 00		5 50		3 75		4 75		3 00				-		-		-
10, .	{	33	6 00	43	7 00	31	6 00	34	6 00	12	6 00	45	5 50	8	8 00	-	-	-	-
		69	5 00	89	6 00	79	5 00	30	4 00	40	4 50	22	4 00	4	-	-	-	-	-
			5 50		6 00		4 30		3 50		3 50		8 50		7 00		-		-
			4 50		4 75		3 00		3 00		2 75		3 00		-		-		-
11, .	{	35	5 50	45	4 50	24	4 50	28	5 00	25	3 00	32	4 50	7	8 00	4	8 00	2	7 00
		34	4 50	23	3 50	40	3 75	85	4 00	20	2 75	24	3 00	8	-	3	-	4	-
			4 00		5 50		3 00		4 50		2 50		3 00		8 00		7 00		6 00
			3 00		5 00		2 75		3 00		2 00		2 75		-		-		-

TABLE VI.—Wages in Wholesale Clothing Establishments—Concluded.

NUMBER OF BLANK.	COAT BASTERS.		COAT FINISHERS.		PANT BASTERS.		PANT FINISHERS.		VEST BASTERS.		VEST FINISHERS.		MACHINE OPERATORS.		BUTTONHOLE MAKERS.		PRESSWOMEN.	
	Number of Employees.	Wages.	Number of Employees.	Wages.	Number of Employees.	Wages.	Number of Employees.	Wages.	Number of Employees.	Wages.	Number of Employees.	Wages.	Number of Employees.	Wages.	Number of Employees.	Wages.	Number of Employees.	Wages.
12, . . .	35	\$5 50	35	\$4 50	30	\$4 00	34	\$4 50	18	\$3 75	35	\$4 50	5	\$10 00	4	\$8 00	3	\$8 00
	40	4 00	33	6 50	27	3 50	24	3 25	20	3 00	-	4 00	4	-	8	-	2	-
13, . . .	48	6 00	38	4 75	64	4 50	46	4 00	24	3 50	34	5 00	12	8 00	8	8 00	1	9 00
	36	5 00	40	3 00	45	3 00	25	3 50	45	2 75	43	4 00	3	-	4	-	3	-
14, . . .	100	4 50	20	3 75	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	7 00	8	7 00	-	-
	39	3 75	89	2 50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	6 00	12	6 00	-	-
15, . . .	49	6 00	43	3 50	30	6 00	30	6 75	37	6 00	33	6 50	4	10 00	12	9 00	9	7 00
	40	4 00	23	-	45	-	65	-	-	3 00	-	2 75	10	-	8	-	-	6 00
16, . . .	21	5 50	35	5 50	40	4 25	59	4 00	32	3 75	-	-	8	8 00	-	-	1	9 00
	33	5 00	55	3 00	43	3 00	-	3 50	30	3 00	-	-	7	-	-	-	3	-
		4 00		5 50		3 50		-		2 75		-		7 00		-		8 00
		3 50		5 00		2 00		-		2 25		-		-		-		-

TABLE VII.—*Wages of Dressmakers.*

NUMBER OF EMPLOYES.	Wages.	NUMBER OF EMPLOYES.	Wages.
28,	\$12 00	42,	\$7 00 to \$6 00
31,	9 00	44,	6 00
40,	8 00	54,	4 50 to 3 00
42,	7 00		
<hr/>			
Number of establishments visited,			36
of employes,			281
Weeks' work in each year,			16
Number of hours per day,			10

Large numbers of girls are employed in the rooms of dress-makers to do plain sewing ; that is, they do not cut nor baste, and are not responsible for the fit of the dress ; but sew work as prepared for them, at wages varying from \$8 to \$4 per week. Trimmers and assistants receive from \$12 to \$9 per week, for a season of 16 weeks per year. The accommodations in these shops and workrooms are better, as a rule, than in ordinary manufacturing establishments. Hours of labor 10. All work by the piece.

We found one establishment that was a notable exception to the above in several respects. Promotions take place from one branch of dressmaking to another, giving an opportunity to learn the business in every detail. The workrooms are large and airy, well supplied with all conveniences for working, and with modern improvements. A dining-room is also provided for the exclusive use of those girls who carry their dinners. *Hours of labor per day (8) eight.* We were assured by the employer and employed, that their profits had been quite as large since the adoption of eight hours for a day's work, some eighteen months since, as before, when working nine and a half hours per day. This is the establishment of Mrs. Olivia Flynt, Chauncy Street.

Milliners.

This class, like the preceding, suffer from short time of work, the season averaging but 16 weeks per year. Wages in first-class establishments average from \$10 to \$8 per week, none exceeding this, excepting persons at the head of departments, and in charge of the work. They, in many instances, command \$20 per week. In general establishments the wages average from \$8 to \$2.50 per week. Most of the work-rooms are in the rear of the sales-store, badly ventilated, and entirely without conveniences. The hours of labor are 10, with the exception of Saturday, when many are obliged to work 14 hours. During dull times, those having no homes seek employment in other branches of industry with every variety of result, some obtaining work, and others seeking in vain for days and weeks. Meantime, living expenses go on, and it is not uncommon for them to exhaust their little savings and come for help upon those more fortunate or better qualified to procure work. These are enabled to command work for awhile, but they also are often reduced to their last penny. These circumstances are applicable only to that class without homes to flee to in the dull season. We know of instances where they crowd three into one bed, in a small bed-room, living as cheaply as possible upon baker's cakes, *without tasting meat for six or seven weeks during the winter months*, in order to bring their living expenses within the limits of their income.

We add here several tables of miscellaneous employments :

MISCELLANEOUS EMPLOYMENTS.*Cabinet Organ Makers.*

A few women are employed in these establishments, steadily earning from \$12 to \$8 per week. Their work-room is better than the average, being ventilated and furnished with all necessary accommodations. The work is not more laborious than that in other trades, but requires skill and delicate treatment.

TABLE VIII.—*Wages of Hair Dressers and Chignon Makers.*

Number of Employes,— Hair Dressers.	WAGES.		Number of Employes,— Chignon Makers.	WAGES.	
	Highest.	Lowest.		Highest.	Lowest.
5	\$12 00	—	56	\$7 00	—
9	10 00	—	42	6 00	—
37	9 00	\$7 00	24	5 00	—
78	6 00	—	39	4 50	—
12	4 50	—	86	3 50	\$2 50
			123	2 00	1 50
141	—	—	370	—	—

Number of establishments visited,	27
employés,	511
Weeks' work in each year,	20
Hours per day at Chignon making,	10
at Hair Dressing,	14

TABLE IX.—*Wages of Muff and Collar Makers.*

Number of Employes.	WAGES.		Number of Employes.	WAGES.	
	Highest.	Lowest.		Highest.	Lowest.
18	\$15 00	—	34	\$12 00	—
12	14 00	—	47	12 00	\$10 00
22	13 00	—	76	9 50	8 00
52	—	—	157	—	—

Number of establishments visited,	12
of employés,	209
Weeks' work in each year,	20 to 24
Hours per day,	10

TABLE X.—*Wages of Paper Box Makers.*

Number of Employes.	WAGES.		Number of Employes.	WAGES.	
	Highest.	Lowest.		Highest.	Lowest.
15	\$8 00	—	20	\$4 00	\$3 50
15	6 00	\$5 50	98	2 75	2 00
12	5 00	—	39	1 50	—
42	—	—	157	—	—

Number of establishments visited,	5
of employés,	199
Weeks' work in each year,	24
Hours per day,	10

Paper Collar Making.

In this business wages are lower, averaging from \$6 to \$1.50 per week. All work is done by the piece, but the season of work is a little longer, being thirty weeks. Many of these collar-makers are young persons, whose age will not exceed eighteen years, working to help defray family expenses.

TABLE XI.—*Wages of Shirt Makers.*

Number of Employes.	WAGES.		Number of Employes.	WAGES.	
	Highest.	Lowest.		Highest.	Lowest.
44	\$12 00	—	179	\$5 00	\$4 50
31	9 00	\$8 50	307	3 50	—
71	8 00	7 00	83	3 00	2 50
113	6 00	—	124	2 00	1 50
259	—	—	693	—	—

Number of establishments visited,	27
of employés,	952
Weeks' work in each year,	40
Hours per day,	10

TABLE XII.—*Wages of Umbrella and Parasol Makers.*

Number of Employes.	WAGES.		Number of Employes.	WAGES.	
	Highest.	Lowest.		Highest.	Lowest.
20	\$12 00	—	23	\$14 00	—
32	10 00	\$9 00	40	12 00	—
49	8 00	—	24	10 00	—
38	7 00	—	73	9 00	\$8 00
69	6 00	—	88	7 00	6 00
72	5 00	—	69	5 00	—
83	4 00	3 00	29	4 50	3 00
114	2 50	2 00	98	2 50	1 50
477	—	—	444	—	—

Number of establishments visited, 24

of employés, 921

Weeks' work in each year, 20

Hours per day, 10

There are factories, in the city, where all kinds of fancy trimmings, knit goods and lace collars are manufactured. This business, like the foregoing, comes in the dull times of other trades, and the wages earned are very small. Our assistant visited but two rooms, and it was with great difficulty she succeeded in getting admission. In these two rooms were employed 242 persons, 54 of this number earning \$7 a week on reeling fancy trimmings, fluting, &c. About 50 were running the machines upon which the trimming was made. Average pay from \$6 to \$5 per week. Others are employed to sew tassels on "nubias," and in folding and packing them also. They earn \$3 and \$2. Runners, little girls who carry away full boxes and bring empty ones, get \$1.50. These all work by the week. Lace collar makers, and those who make up the woven goods into jackets, work by the piece, and usually take their

work home, working there at night, two to three hours. Some who had been working for several months, could earn but \$1 per week. They are paid once a fortnight, and obliged to give one week's notice before leaving or else forfeit one week's pay.

SUBDIVISION II.—*Shops.*

All reliable employers furnish machines for their employés without extra charge, and furnish all the materials for the manufacturing of their goods; or if furnished by employés they allow pay for their use there. They also employ the same workwomen from season to season, in preference to new ones. This rule will apply to the few only who do the largest business, while it is a common practice with those doing "piece" or contract business for large firms to discharge help and cut down wages weekly. One way of doing this is to discharge the old employés and hire unskilled hands at lower rates.

It is not uncommon to see a placard "GIRLS WANTED," displayed at a door, the advertiser at the same time discharging the old employés. Nor is it rare to charge women using machines furnished by the employer \$1 per week for their use,* or to require some to furnish their own without remuneration. *They also furnish thread used in the manufacture of their goods at 50 cents for a dozen spools, that can be bought in abundance at retail for 30 cents.* They thus make 67 per cent. additional profit on thread, and a monstrous profit on the machine from their own workwomen.

Carpet Slipper Makers.

Slipper makers work by the pair, at the rate of two cents per pair. The most expert can make three hundred pairs per week if not interrupted, and so earn \$6. The majority average about 150 pairs per week. Work-rooms are up five flights of stairs, ventilation from side windows only. Most of them carry their dinners. Slipper-bow and rosette-makers earn less than in almost any other business, owing probably to the season, of 12 weeks per year, coming at a time when other trades are dull. The price paid is two cents per dozen for bows, four cents per dozen for rosettes. One girl had worked at the business four

* A good machine can be bought for \$65, so that \$1 per week, or \$52 a year, *would be 80 per cent. per annum*, and for the thirty weeks *would be 46 per cent.!!*

weeks and could make but four dozen bows per day. Another having worked two weeks could *earn but 32 cents per week*. The best skilled of these workwomen, having worked at the business during the season for two years, declared they could earn but \$3 per week, unless they were fortunate enough to obtain orders for custom work, when they could make \$8 or \$7 per week. This was, however, very rarely the case. Work-rooms up four flights of stairs, crowded as closely as they can sit, ventilation from side windows of room, and no accommodations, save water for drinking. Nearly all carry their dinners; season of work 20 weeks per year. All work by the piece, but are expected to be in the shop 10 hours per day.

Special Cases—Testimony of two Workingwomen.

We append two cases which are samples of hundreds, and represent an average,—neither the most successful nor the most unfortunate. We were able to investigate them thoroughly, and give assurance of their perfect reliability.

Miss A—— B——, a coat-finisher. Works in a large wholesale clothing establishment; came to Boston in April, 1868, a stranger in the city; obtained board on Harrison Avenue at \$5 per week; could not find a respectable boarding-place for less money; was not willing to live in a dirty or disreputable place; worked three months, earning on an average from \$8 to \$7 per week; worked fifteen hours every day; constant application on heavy work resulted in slow fever; was sent (July 7th) to the Massachusetts General Hospital, through the influence of my attending physician; was unable to leave the ward till August 9th, when I walked out a little way; expected to be obliged to leave the hospital at once, as I was able to walk; but my savings were exhausted, I had nowhere to go; in my weak state I was almost in despair. On my return met Dr. Shaw and asked him if I might stay until morning. He questioned me, and upon hearing that I had no friends, and that it was the dull season, and that I should have no work till September, said that I would not be able to work till then, and that I yet needed medical treatment and had best remain until well. I staid until September 15th, but little improved in strength; but work had begun to come in, and to secure my place I was obliged to begin at once. My former boarding-mistress refused me admittance to my own room (where my trunk was), unless I could pay a week's board in advance; I went out penniless, not knowing which way to turn;

stayed with one of the shop-girls that night. Worked eight days before receiving any pay; slept with one of my shopmates, borrowed fifty cents and bought bread; that was all I had to eat through the week except as my shopmates gave me a cup of tea or shared their lunch with me; was not very strong and earned only \$5.75 during the eight days. Saw that I must live more economically; hired an attic room with three other girls, paying \$1 per week each; furniture of the room consisted of two beds, three chairs and a broken washstand; there was no fireplace and was obliged to sew in a cold room during the winter evenings, with a cloak, shawl or blanket over my shoulders; there is no room in the house where I am allowed the privilege of a fire; saw no prospect of ever being any better off; work only half the year that I can depend upon; am forced to remain idle so much that it exhausts all that I am able to save. Am obliged to be idle more than I should had I a trade by which I could command better wages during the season, which would afford me means of obtaining more comfortable living, and dressing suitably for church and better society; with my present means I prefer none to associating with the coarse people about me.

Miss B—— C——. Am a New Hampshire girl; came to Boston March, 1865, to live with Mrs. —— on Beacon Street, in capacity of seamstress, and to take some care of the children three and five years old; lived there until October, 1869, receiving \$3 per week. Was allowed Thursday evening of each week, and one Sabbath per month. Became tired of the service, for as the children grew older they became restive oftentimes, using their small violence against me. The mother said she should not correct them for it unless they confessed it to her. As the boys grew older and heavier, found it impossible to carry them up and down stairs from kitchen to attic, as had to be done several times during the day. Finding my health failing, I resolved to seek employment in some shop, not thinking I should find any difficulty in obtaining work which would afford me a living. In this I was sorrowfully disappointed; procured board in Tyler Street at \$4 per week, sharing a room with three others. This was unlike the living and accommodations I had been having, but I preferred to submit to it rather than to return to service. Indeed I could not easily procure another situation, for my former mistress had notified all the respectable intelligence offices that I was unworthy, having left her without just cause. This influence I felt would prevent my obtaining a situation in a good family, as I should be required to give recommenda-

tions from my former mistress, and she had warned the intelligence offices to beware of me. With these obstacles I resolved not to attempt a return to service until I had given something else a trial. I obtained work in a clothing shop at finishing pants; earned \$3.85 the first week, the next a little more, and so on for thirteen weeks, paying \$4 per week for board. I was then again taken sick and unable to work for two weeks; drew some of the money I had earned while in service from the savings bank; cold weather came on and I was obliged to draw more to procure clothing for the winter; dull times coming, was discharged, or rather told there would be no more work for two months. Day after day I went in pursuit of work, but having no trade was refused many times where I might have obtained it had I been qualified to make a garment entire, or to do nice embroidery. My inability was the bar to my obtaining work in dull times, so I was refused at every place. I went to my lodgings discouraged and sick: had no home to flee to, no work and was using my little savings faster than I had earned them. Was taken sick, stayed in my boarding-place until I had drawn my last dollar from the bank; growing still worse my physician advised me to go to the hospital; this I had great dread of doing, but was growing worse so fast I went, and stayed four weeks; was then able to work a little; returned to my boarding-house and was refused board without payment in advance; was obliged to accept the hospitality of two former shopmates and sleep three in one bed; next day obtained work, finishing pants; soon we were cut down ten and fifteen cents every payment. Workwomen are constantly discharged and new girls hired so often that I am now in constant dread of a discharge.

GENERAL REMARKS.

The slightest examination into the comparative wages of men and women, shows a very great inequality,—the excess being very largely in favor of the stronger sex, so that the suggestion is not wanting that perhaps here, “might makes right.” To estimate these wages relatively is, in many cases, quite difficult, because of the wide difference in the several employments of the two parties, and the brief time out of an entire year during which women have employment. But taking certain branches in which each sex is more steadily employed, as in some departments of sewing, of clerkage and attendance in stores, and specially in teaching, it is easy to institute a com-

parison, though not easy to assign a satisfactory reason therefor.

The determination of wage by sex, is defended on the general ground that being women, they really live at less cost than men. This is doubtless true in application to single women. It cannot be of entire force in its application to those who have dependent families, nor should it receive aid from the thought that because they are of the weaker sex they are less able to protect themselves against depression of wage. This obstacle of sex is also fortified in the case of married women, by the generally accepted idea that the man is the supporter of the household. As a general rule he is, but there are frequent exceptions, and even if normal, it is not amenable to the laws of proportion; for no man at wage receives wages in the ratio of the number of his children,* nor does anybody ever think of paying a widow at wage any more, whether she has ten or two fatherless children to provide for.

Employers sometimes claim that they keep their works running, out of commiseration for their employés. If this be true, it has a most commendable quality of mercy; but it is possible to be deceived in motive, and safe to say that wage hath little flavor of charity and not always much odor of justice. Its usual rule is to "get the most for the least,"—to buy labor at the cheapest, and sell its product at the dearest rates.

An examination of our tables of women's wages will show that as a general rule, these wages are not enough to keep off want, seldom anything more, so that she can neither provide for contingent sickness, nor make savings for contingent marriage. Yet every woman desires, on this latter event, to contribute something towards setting out in the new life. Now the impossibility of this being done by the majority of working women, and the low wages of those with whom they would probably marry, and the increasing cost of living, are all operating against marriage, and tending therefore to immorality.

Again, what are the inducements held out, under present methods of specialty and subdivision of work, and low wage, to encourage in women, or men either, in many cases, a thoroughness of work? Long labor, low pay, small prospect

* See the incisive satire on the poor laws of England, recently published, called "Ginx's Baby."

of promotion or advance in the handicraft, can yield no encouragement to ambition, or to effort for success. Nay, low pay lengthens the hours of labor and so enervates the laborer, specially if the labor be monotonous and sedentary, as is that of sewing women. Ten to fifteen hours a day, with scant and cold food, scant and cold clothing, scant and cold rooms, will never augment physical endurance, but will, with the added help of bad air and no purifying ventilation, nor proper shop or household conveniences, rather tend, as physicians all testify, to exhaust strength, worry out endurance, discourage all hope and "make the heart sick."

Again, woman, more than man, has a pride of appearance, that is proper and justifiable, and the most cynical of men approve it. But if relentless work not only employs her all day but demands of her hours at night, she cannot respond to this rightful impulse, cannot even keep up a decency of look and garb, and must, both for this cause and for lack of time, deny herself the advantages of the evening school, of the lecture-room, and of innocent and refining amusements of every sort. Nay, unable to appear in suitable attire, or to pay the price of a seat, as is the requirement in most churches, she is virtually denied the voice of Him who was "anointed to preach the gospel to the poor, and sent to heal the broken-hearted;" the modern tendency to costly churches rendering it still less possible for her to enjoy this privilege.*

Well meant as are the efforts of good people to furnish remedies for these difficulties, they do not reach the root of the evil. That lies a good deal deeper down than has yet been sounded. Nor will it ever be eradicated and permanently cured, till the present methods of labor and of wage shall be replaced by others, which shall more justly distribute the wealth created by the producers of wealth—just wage coming out of just work by just means, and generating a feeling of self-respect and a spirit of manly and womanly independence.

Not charity, but justice is what the workwoman wants, and a just share of the world's money for her share of the world's work. We have the testimony of hard-working, respectable and rightly ambitious girls, whose lives are so utterly bare of

* It is comforting to be able to record some exceptional cases where all seats are free, and the gospel can be heard "without money and without price."

all the innocent pleasures and opportunities of life, that it makes the heart ache to think theirs are not exceptional cases. For no fault of theirs, but because they are homeless and friendless, left out of the account in the happy things of life, with nothing but its bitterness remaining, they are compelled to take up with inferior and even repulsive accommodations, and in houses where the society is wholly undesirable. Keepers of boarding-houses are unwilling to take women boarders, especially shop-girls. They make a marked difference between shop-girls and shop-boys. Male clerks have no difficulty in procuring board, where female clerks are refused. This combination of hard labor with poor fare and shelter, and insufficient clothing, is sure to induce disease in the healthiest, and yet many of this class are living in homes wholly unfit in almost all respects, deprived of the gift of God's pure air, and in proximity to uncleanness which it is impossible for them to avoid. Is it to be wondered at, then, that many of them are feeble, consumptive and suffering, and that when married, they impart to their children a weak and sickly organization?

In view then of the suffering, the degradation and crime, that are the result of ill-paid labor, education becomes a necessity. Ceasing to be a luxury, it is a necessity, and most of all to those who have the least power to avail themselves of it. By education we do not mean a knowledge merely of branches taught in public schools, necessary though they may be to that development of the intellect which gives power in any direction. Something more than this is requisite to enable girls to earn their daily bread. A girl upon leaving school is fitted by the education which she has received for only one avocation, that of teacher, and however ill fitted she may be for that by nature, she has no choice but to wait her opportunity, to accept the first offer of marriage, to enter the overcrowded ranks of unskilled labor, or to put herself "under protection," so-called—"such protection as vultures give to doves, cowering and devouring them."

Taking now a view of the surroundings of the average working girl, we see that she has less time for improvement of any sort, whether practical or intellectual, than the average working man, little as he has. In whatever direction, after school-days, she looks for methods of living, she finds herself hindered

by more obstacles than oppose the beginner of the other sex, her own more delicate organization of body and mind not being among the least. She has indeed had a measure of school-training, but nothing positively practical. Her ignorance of the world and the impediments to her obtaining a trade-education, confront her at every step, the more lucrative and therefore the more desirable the employment, the greater being her difficulty in attaining unto it. There are some trades which it is all but impossible for her to learn, even though she had money to live upon while striving to learn. For instance, one of the most profitable trades in which women are engaged is that of custom coat-making for merchant tailors. Its acquirement demands much time, much patience and much physical strength and endurance. During its acquisition, the learner must mainly support herself. Now there is scarcely a custom shop in the city of Boston where a learner would be received. Indeed it is not stating the case too strongly to say, that it is impossible for a girl to acquire this trade in town. For if received as they are in manufacturing establishments, it is the interest of the employer to teach an apprentice only one branch of his business. He knows that as she acquires others, she becomes proportionally independent of him. Taught this alone, he can more easily retain her and use her single skill for his own benefit. She becomes then the slave of a specialty. This is the tendency of all modern congregated labor. Take an instance that came within our own knowledge: a girl went to a first-class dress-making establishment to learn the trade—the whole trade, as she expected. But she graduated only a coverer of buttons. For weeks upon weeks, she did nothing but cover buttons. With a natural aptitude, she acquired this skill in a very short time, but that was as far as she was allowed to go,—all that she was allowed to learn of the trade. What wonder then that she became discouraged and even disgusted? What hope of progress in the art could she see,—what hope of livelihood from a business, her knowledge of which was limited to that of its buttons? This is but a sample from hundreds of similar cases, which are increasing in frequency.

In the country towns there is better opportunity to learn a full trade, and it is from the country towns that the demand for skilled labor is supplied, and supplied by those who have the

advantage of a home, wherein to acquire their skill, and to which they can flee in case of emergencies of trade, or break-down by sickness, or need of vacation, and so enter the city somewhat forearmed for the struggle in obtaining means of support.

Statistics prove, beyond doubt, that most fallen women have been compelled to their fall by poverty. The evident remedy is therefore the prevention of the impelling cause. Efforts in other directions, though eminently laudable, are but occasional, and can never eradicate the root of the wrong. We may build Magdalen asylums without number, we may strive to allure the hapless and almost hopeless victims from the fearful sin that enfolds them, by setting before ear and eye the refined allurements of a better way of life, and good men may joy in following the gospels duty of so doing, but all that will be effected will be partial and transitory. They are but ephemeral easements of the great corroding cancer of civilization, a cancer that will live and consume, so long as its roots gather sustenance from out of the festering slough of poverty. “’Tis true, ’tis pity ’tis, ’tis true,”—a most melancholy truth, that not seldom the healthful desire itself which yearns for more refined society than most of these girls enjoy, leads them, in unconscious innocence and confidence, into company which, wearing the mask of a cultivated look, is but an allurements to sin.

When woman shall be justly recompensed for her labor, with new avenues opening and new and quickening inducements to enterprise, she will become the mistress, and not continue the slave of her situation, and then confidently wait the issue, whether it be that of the associated life for which she was created, or that of singly blessing her generation by the good words and good deeds of a pure and holy life.

We add this one thought more, that she should be at once endowed with her rightful political equality. These helps will do more towards purifying the social state and correcting the great social evils under which she suffers, than years of legislation, or volumes of statutes. The vilest man can further his villainy at the ballot-box ; the purest and noblest woman cannot protect her smallest right thereby. The tyranny that oppresses her is strengthened by her own disfranchisement, and makes her impotent to defend her own prerogatives.

We have compressed into these few pages what could well

fill volumes ; but must leave the subject, regretting our inability, at the present time, to treat the question in a more satisfactory manner, but hoping that what has been so carefully gathered will not fail to arrest attention.

It must satisfy every reasonable and thoughtful person, that cheap labor so loudly called for, and low wage so persistently pressed, are the fruitful and fearful causes of that most horrible of all the social evils, the very thought of which produces a moral nausea, and the very word for which we revolt at penning.

PRELIMINARY TO CLASS IV.

Before passing to the consideration of Class IV., it is proper to say that the information obtained was gleaned by the use of five different blanks, viz. : numbers 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 ; number 6 forming the basis of numbers 3 (shoe), 4 (cotton), and 5 (woollen), these three differing only in details of classification appropriate to each several business. The blanks 3, 4, 5 and 6 were prepared with special reference to manufacturing establishments where men, women, young persons and children were all employed.

These blanks apply to about half the divisions and subdivisions under Class IV., and a limited number under Class V.

To illustrate their nature we give herewith the questions of blank No. 6 :—

1. Name of establishment.
2. City or town.
3. Name of agent or superintendent.
4. Post-office address.
5. Capital invested, \$; No. of shares, ; par value, \$.
6. Employés, total present, ; native, ; foreign, ; men, ; women, ; young persons, ; children, .
7. Total required (for full business).
8. Number of persons in each class.
9. Occupation.
10. Average wages by day or piece.
11. Earnings, from January 1st to July 1st, 1870.
12. Hours of labor per week.
13. Hours of labor on Saturday.
14. Price of board per week for men, women, children.

15. Time allowed for dinner.
16. Whole number of persons that cannot read or write; native, ; foreign, .
17. Number of children who have had their legal schooling.
18. Total amount of wages paid from January 1st to July 1st, 1870.

No. 7 was designed for those mechanical kinds of labor in which the working force is composed wholly or mainly of men. This distinction applies to about half the divisions and subdivisions under Class IV. and to nearly all under Class V. The nature of this blank may be seen in the following analysis:—

Questions of Blank No. 7.

1. Title of firm or corporation.
2. Place of location.
3. Name of manager.
4. His P. O. address.
5. Capital invested, with number and value of shares.
6. Present number of employés; native and foreign.
7. Number required.
8. Occupations.
9. Number in each class.
10. Average day wages in each class.
11. Monthly earnings in each class; highest and lowest.
12. Hours of labor per week and Saturdays.
13. Time allowed for dinner.
14. Whole number that cannot read and write; native and foreign.
15. Total amount of wages paid first six months of 1870.

With this preliminary statement we proceed to consider the next Class.

CLASS IV. INDUSTRIAL.

- DIVISION I. APPAREL.
- DIVISION II. CHEMICALS.
- DIVISION III. FOOD, DRINK, &c.
- DIVISION IV. MINERAL SUBSTANCES.
- DIVISION V. PRINTING AND COLLATERALS.
- DIVISION VI. MISCELLANEOUS.

Number of Blanks sent out,	1,482
Number of Blanks returned,	480

DIVISION I. APPAREL.

SUBDIVISION I. *Boots and Shoes.*

This industry is one of the largest in the Commonwealth, both as regards capital invested and number of persons em-

ployed. It has grown with a rapidity almost unequalled. Invention has seemed to centre about it until every phase of the "Ancient and Honorable Mysterie of Cordwainers" (shoemakers) has disappeared, and in its place have come cutters, stock-fitters, lasters, bottomers, machine operators, beaders, trimmers, edge-setters, finishers, &c., &c,—men who each perform some fractional part of the trade. With the change has vanished the little shop with its democratic rule of hours of labor, giving to each an opportunity to read, talk, or cease work for a few hours or weeks of farming or fishing. Now factory discipline, though not yet so rigid as that of the textile establishments, has set aside all this, and congregated labor and aggregated capital have met to try their forces, as was done of old in other branches of labor, when passing through the change from the old method of the house to the new method of the mill.

The information obtained in answer to blank No. 3 will be found in the accompanying table. The totals given at foot of table, page 226, relate to all the blanks received, and not to the 88 that were susceptible of tabulation.

TABLE I.—Wages in Boot and Shoe Establishments.

Number of Blank.	C O U N T Y.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.					AVERAGE WAGES PER DAY.							
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Total.	Cutting Room.	Fitting Room.		Sole Leather Room.	Bottoming Room.	Finishing Room.	Dressing, &c.
									Men.	Women.				
1	Berkshire,	77	12	55	7	4	66	\$2 00	-	\$2 50	\$1 75	\$3 25	-	-
2				56	27	5	89	3 00	-	1 12	2 25	3 00	\$1 00	-
3				45	13	4	62	3 00	\$2 00	1 50	2 50	3 00	1 75	-
4				85	30	15	130	2 25	1 50	-	2 25	3 00	1 00	-
5				35	9	-	44	3 00	-	1 50	-	3 25	3 00	-
6	Bristol,	40	3	28	3	12	43	2 25	-	1 00	2 37	2 62	3 00	\$3 00
7				27	14	-	41	2 00	-	1 00	3 00	2 50	2 87	3 00
8	Essex,	100	25	50	50	25	125	3 00	-	1 42	3 00	3 00	3 00	2 00
9				65	10	10	75	1 97	-	1 25	-	2 75	2 50	-
10	Hampshire,	203	192	238	133	24	395	2 62	2 00	1 37	2 25	3 00	2 50	-
11				157	18	-	175	2 00	-	2 00	-	1 25	75	-
12	Middlesex,	166	64	155	55	20	230	2 50	-	1 25	2 50	2 75	2 50	2 50
13				192	55	20	230	2 62	2 00	1 50	2 37	3 25	2 75	2 25
14				145	15	-	35	1 96	-	1 00	2 00	2 00	2 21	-
15				157	15	-	40	2 00	-	1 25	-	2 83	1 50	-
16				166	20	80	160	3 50	-	2 00	2 00	3 25	3 25	2 50
17	Norfolk,	20	15	30	10	5	45	2 50	-	2 00	2 50	2 00	2 50	1 50
18				24	2	9	35	2 75	2 00	1 00	2 50	2 00	3 00	-
19				70	-	15	85	2 50	-	-	3 00	2 25	2 50	-
20				5	2	1	8	2 75	2 00	1 00	2 50	-	-	-
21				16	4	-	20	2 25	2 00	1 00	-	-	2 50	-
22		50	25	60	15	-	75	2	3 00	1 00	-	-	2 50	

TABLE I.—Wages in Boot and Shoe Establishments—Continued.

Number of Blank.	C O U N T Y.	NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED.					AVERAGE WAGES PER DAY.								
		Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Per-sons.	Total.	Cutting Room.		Fitting Room.		Sole Leather Room.	Bottoming Room.	Finishing Room.	Dressing, &c.
								Men.		Men.	Women.				
23	Norfolk—Con.	29	31	50	5	5	60	\$2 00	\$1 17	-	\$2 00	-	\$3 00	\$2 25	-
24		15	-	12	3	-	15	3 00	3 00	\$1 50	2 50	2 50	-	-	-
25		-	-	-	-	-	-	2 50	2 37	1 50	2 00	2 00	2 87	-	-
26		40	27	55	12	-	67	2 87	2 50	2 00	3 12	3 50	3 00	3 00	\$2 00
27		-	-	-	-	-	-	2 75	2 25	1 62	3 00	2 90	-	-	-
28		52	9	50	9	2	61	2 75	1 87	1 25	2 25	2 62	2 50	2 50	2 25
29		15	4	18	-	1	19	2 50	2 00	-	-	3 00	-	-	2 50
30		60	3	55	8	-	63	3 25	2 50	1 87	2 75	2 62	3 00	3 00	2 00
31		20	13	26	4	3	33	2 50	2 00	1 25	2 00	3 12	2 50	2 50	1 50
32		15	3	16	2	-	18	3 00	2 00	1 37	3 00	2 62	-	-	-
33	Plymouth.	18	28	42	4	-	46	3 25	3 00	1 37	2 50	3 00	2 50	2 50	2 50
34		43	3	32	5	9	46	2 50	-	-	-	2 37	2 00	-	-
35		80	161	80	13	148	241	2 50	2 75	1 50	2 50	3 17	2 75	2 00	-
36		92	-	59	33	-	92	2 50	-	1 08	2 50	2 33	2 00	2 00	-
37		30	30	49	11	-	60	2 87	3 00	2 12	3 00	3 10	3 50	5 00	-
38		12	3	12	3	15	15	3 00	-	1 50	2 75	3 00	3 00	3 00	-
39		25	1	22	4	-	26	2 75	-	1 50	2 50	2 50	2 25	2 25	1 75
40		3	14	16	1	-	17	3 00	2 70	1 00	-	-	2 62	-	-
41		10	-	8	2	-	10	-	-	1 46	2 00	3 37	2 75	1 50	1 50
42		15	6	17	4	-	21	2 58	-	1 12	2 25	2 67	3 00	2 50	2 50
43		11	19	23	3	4	30	2 40	-	1 12	2 25	2 50	-	1 00	1 00
44		-	-	62	7	-	69	2 50	2 10	1 37	2 75	3 25	3 00	-	-

Recapitulation and Further Details.

The total number employed in 115 establishments is given at 7,037, an average of 61 persons to each. The native and foreign element appears to be about equally divided. No mention is made in the returns of children, though some are known to be employed, as will appear in the review of the business as conducted in Lynn, further on in the Report. Certain practical difficulties in the way of determining the precise age of employes has probably resulted in putting the number classified as “young persons” somewhat lower than the facts will warrant.

The following table gives the ratio of children, as reported by a number of representative establishments :—

BOOT AND SHOE TABLE II.

NUMBER.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.
1,	20	1	—	1
2,	279	55	—	9
3,	66	6	4	1
4,	324	8	7	5
5,	27	3	—	3
6,	80	13	14	1
7,	23	3	—	4
8,	129	46	50	30
9,	19	4	5	2
10,	24	2	8	1
11,	228	133	24	10
Totals,	1,219	274	112	67

These footings give the ratio of those employed over 15 years of age to those under the same term as 24 to 1. Doubtless both the nature of the business and the rules of the Crispin organization have much to do with this favorable exhibit.

The prevalent rule as to the hours of labor per week is 60. Exceptions to this custom give six establishments working 59 hours; three, 58; one, 57; five, 54; two, 50; one, 48; and one 70 hours per week. The establishment in which the shop hands work 70 hours per week is situated in the town of Barre, and is not a corporation. About one factory in every five seems to work less than 10 hours on Saturday; some closing up after five hours' work. Piece hands, when trade is brisk, often work up to the full extent of their strength, without any special limit as to hours, so as to make up for the lack of work in dull times.

The price of board for men averages \$5 per week, the extremes being \$6 and \$4; for women, an average of \$3.50 per week, the extremes being \$4.50 and \$2.50. No exception seems to be made to the allowance of at least one hour for dinner.

The statistics of illiteracy are very meagre. Of the whole number reported as unable to read and write, the relation of native to foreign is as 39 to 105. There can be no doubt, however, that the general standard of intelligence in the trade is good.

Under the head of wages, the average paid in the cutting room is found to be \$2.63 per day; in the fitting room, \$2.44 for men and \$1.44 for women; in the sole-leather room, \$2.53; in the bottoming room, \$2.81; in the finishing room, \$2.56; in the dressing room, \$2.50. The wages of young persons are given as from \$1.50 to \$1, and of children from 75 cents to 50 cents per day.

Allowing the working months of the year in this trade to be 10, which is probably an overestimate, and supposing it possible for one to work during that time without interruption from sickness or other necessary drawbacks, the average annual earnings of the boot and shoe maker, according to the wages given, would be about \$650; women in the trade, on the same basis of time, would earn about \$350. Certain tables and testimony hereinafter given throw additional light on this subject.

In this business the introduction of improved machinery is constant, and a manufacturer, who has figured the matter up with some care, gives the relation of hand to machine production as 6 to 21. The same gentleman remarks that the factory

system really calls for more intense muscular exertion, and hence is more exhaustive than the shop system.

Intemperance is most common in those departments where the severest work is demanded. The cutters, perhaps, represent one extreme, and the bottomers the other. Some establishments report no intemperance whatever.

The average amount of time lost by each man in the working season, as taken from twenty-four returns, is one day per month.

In twenty-eight returns the length of the working season is given as ranging between eight and one-half and twelve months, the average being ten and one-half months. In the great centres of the trade, Lynn and Haverhill, the working season is considerably shorter, being, perhaps, fairly represented by eight and one-half or nine months. We give it as our judgment that a general average of nine and one-half months is not far out of the way, with a constant tendency toward shorter seasons as machinery improves in variety and excellence.

The manufacturers (33 in number), reporting their pay-roll for six months from January to July, give the average pay per person employed at \$1.83 per day.

The earnings reported do not admit much margin of saving to the workman year by year, and the facts show that it is becoming more and more difficult to secure homes by wage accumulations in this branch of industry. In some of the country towns, a considerable number are able to live in houses of their own, some of them inherited, some of them bought with bounty money, and others partially or wholly acquired by wage earnings. The money value of these places, or the amount of mortgage upon them, was not given. The following table gives the result of inquiries made in this direction of manufacturers in such towns in Worcester County as Spencer, Warren and the Brookfields, and, in Plymouth County, in such places as Abington, Middleborough and East Bridgewater. Of course the same percentage would be far from holding good in the cities of Lynn, Haverhill or Worcester.

BOOT AND SHOE TABLE III.

C O U N T Y .						Number.	Number of Men Employed.	No. of Men owning Places.
Worcester,	1	112	20
"	2	60	11
"	3	70	28
"	4	57	11
"	5	324	28
"	6	66	19
"	7	279	70
"	8	51	14
"	9	19	5
"	10	50	5
"	11	26	4
"	12	28	6
"	13	97	21
"	14	28	7
Plymouth,	1	80	31
"	2	50	17
"	3	46	12
"	4	59	18
Totals,	18	1,502	327

In most of the large manufactories the contract system is in vogue to a greater or less extent. A skilful workman with special faculty for turning out work, generally a foreman, will take a job of the employer at so much, and hire and discharge his men and women as he pleases. Often such establishments are quite popular with the workmen.

The friction between employer and employed in this branch of business has been less during this year than during the preceding

year. The recognition of the right and even the benefits of organization have been more generally conceded by employers than ever before, though strong objection is still interposed to the Crispin principle of controlling the supply of labor by a refusal to aid in teaching apprentices; while the Crispins, in theory at least, maintain the justice of protecting the approaches to a trade which, under an entire absence of restrictions, they feel would yield them a very precarious living. They wish to share themselves in the pecuniary advantages obtained from the free use of machinery. Friction always seems to be most imminent in connection with employing firms whose working seasons are the shortest, the employer wishing to make profit in a single season on his capital for a year, and the workman desiring to secure a rate of wage high enough to leave a margin for the uncertain time when he must seek employment elsewhere, with the chances against his immediate success in that search.

The employers of the same town will differ very much in their ways of dealing with their employés. One secures a reputation for fairness; seldom lowers his prices; more often raises them; never has trouble; occasionally makes a friendly present all round; renders everything so smooth and attractive that a trade organization has no charms for his employés; he is free to say that the effect of the Crispin unions is to steady the trade, saving it from the wild fluctuations that accompany untrammelled competition. Another has constant trouble upon matters of wage and internal economy; announces in harsh haste a ten or fifteen per cent. reduction; stands up to a square fight of simple endurance; and wins or fails, as the case may be, only to renew the effort to cut down, at the most convenient opportunity. One favors the union because he thinks it useful in keeping up the quality of the work; another declares that a Crispin shall never work for him. One works on the eight or nine hour system, doing a steady, moderately profitable business; another is shocked and angered at the very suggestion of such a method. One will give work eight months at the highest pressure; another will furnish his force with enough to do for eleven and twelve months, with no rush or reaction.

In an industry capable of so great difference of method, and having to deal so directly with the bread and butter question, as related to thousands of workers, it would be very strange if

the laborer did not search for methods giving some promise of that fairer distribution and more permanent reward which accompany continuous employment.

Many of the workmen have their eyes set upon coöperation, as an outlet or remedy, and some experiments have been made on that line. As these are found to be successful, others are emboldened to make similar attempts. To the masses, however, the most practical way seems to be to make the most of the wage system, in standing firmly and steadily by each other, in efforts to keep prices up, and competition in the ranks of labor at a minimum. In the nature of things an entire escape from the friction that is always impending between employer and employed cannot be had. With mutual advance in knowledge and charity, will come suggestions of a better way. Coöperation is the fruit of self-respect, mutual confidence and a noble ambition; and these qualities are, as a rule, only developed through struggle and discipline.

The Shoe Business in Lynn.

An investigation of the strike at Lynn elicited much valuable information. The factory system has there found the fullest development, with its numerous drawbacks and compensations. Work in all the departments is largely done by machinery. Each class of labor devotes itself to a specialty, and a workman taken from one department and put into another, would fail to make headway, or earn living wages. The use of machinery has virtually swept away the old race of shoemakers who could make up an entire shoe. As mentioned elsewhere, the work is confined to two seasons, and between them there is an interval of three or four months, and sometimes even a longer time. As the season opens, a man will get three or four days' work a week, with gradual increase till the rush comes; this in turn passes off, and, work beginning to slack, it at last tapers off to nothing at all. For instance, if the shop has a crew sufficient to do 15 sets a day, enough stock will be given them to get out 8 or 10 sets per day. (A set means 60 pairs or 24 pairs, the latter men's shoes.) This scant supply will run through four or six weeks. Then they will give them 15 sets, and afterwards from 18 to 30 sets, putting on more help when they get above the capacity of the crew. The rush being over, the men come down to 10 or

15 sets, but the extra men not being turned off, drag along for three or four weeks more with not half work enough. "Last year," says a workman, "I had all I wanted to do from January 1 to May 1. From May 1 until the last week in July, leaving out the first week of the former month and the last of the latter month, eleven weeks in all, I earned a few cents over \$36."

"Since the old system of working in little shops was abandoned," says another, "for that of large manufactories, there has been a steady diminution in the length of the working season per year. Before the time of factories there would be a steady run of employment for from seven to ten years, only interrupted by commercial depressions or revulsions. The working hours would be from twelve to fifteen. The season for lighting up, was from September 20 to May 20. Since that time there has never been a year of steady work. At first a month only would be lost; now it has got so that we lose over four months' time every year. The system is worse here than elsewhere, because machinery has been more thoroughly introduced."

In the busy season men will come into the place from their homes at a distance on the farm. They are not as skilful, reliable, or intelligent as the permanent men; but the system of subdivision admits of their employment. There will be stock-fitters, McKay operators, beaders, trimmers, channellers, edge-setters, etc. You can put into a shop a farm laborer from New Hampshire, and in three days he will learn to do a part. There is comparatively nothing to learn, and so no apprenticeship is required.

Some think the factory system has proved injurious, as hindering the development and growth of intelligence. In the little shops one would read while the rest worked, the reading being accompanied or supplemented by conversation upon the topics treated. In the factory there is no chance to read, and the noise and hum of machinery prevent general conversation, even when the rules and discipline do not positively forbid it. By others it might be claimed that the extra time gained in the shorter working day, gave increased opportunities for special culture. It is doubtful, however, if the latter is a fair offset to the former in its educational influence, since the one system

would give unconscious improvement, while the latter would require greater self-control and more persistent application.

In its effect upon morals some think the old system preferable to the new ; others claim that there is no special difference between the two. Doubtless the weight of evidence is in favor of the former view, on the general ground that fluctuations in employment produce effects analogous to similar fluctuations in business, and that in a variety of ways.

The day and week hands work from 7 o'clock A. M. until 6 P. M., with an hour at noon. Others do all they have strength to do, some working from 4 A. M. until 10 or 11 P. M. The temptation is very great for a man who has been without anything to do, week after week, to work thirteen hours a day, with corresponding high wages, even if by so doing he is reduced in a few weeks to a mere skeleton. Time even to eat is not taken, under such circumstances ; a hasty bite of cold lunch, or a hurried resort to a restaurant sufficing, the whole consuming, perhaps, not more than fifteen minutes of time.

Many women work at different branches of the business, but very few of them are married. The sewing machines are largely run by young women, but the work requires the best of health and strength. Boys of 8 years old and upwards, are employed a good deal. They are taken in to do what men will not stop to do, when there is a rush. Two or three men will club together and hire a boy to help them. The season of employment is comparatively short, and does not altogether prevent their receiving some schooling, though of course it is a serious interruption of it. Most of those employed are children of shoemakers, though, as a rule, the parent does not keep his child from school, if he can possibly support his family otherwise. One gentleman estimates that a third of the children of shoemakers are obliged to work in this or other employments, in order that the family expenses may be met.

Most of the workmen live in the outskirts of the city, or in neighboring towns and villages. The rent of a comfortable house for a family of four, comes to \$200 to \$225 a year. Nearly all with families hire their tenements ; a few have places wholly or partly paid for. One says :—

“Nine out of every ten of our shoemakers who own houses,

earned them under the old system, and at a cost of not more than one-third of the present value of the same or similar places. Don't know one who has paid for such a home, by the labor of his hands alone, since the factory system came into vogue. Some have obtained them through a start given by bounty money, a favorable marriage, or some other streak of good fortune. Some have made a beginning through the aid of money loaned on mortgaged security."

Another says :—

"The shop's crew that dresses the best, and in all respects makes the neatest appearance of any in Lynn, is one that can be starved out the quickest, because not a man among them owns, clear of incumbrance, a house of his own."

According to wages received the workmen may be classified as well paid, moderately paid, and low paid. In the former class the earnings of a year will range between \$800 and \$1,200, the latter sum being very rarely earned, and never unless partially from the labor of others. The channellers, the men who run the McKay and the beading machines, and the men who finish the bottoms, have jobs by means of which they can make their expenses when others cannot. In one shop a man is paid \$1,100 for a year's time, during which he will probably work nine months and have three to himself. Another for the same work gets \$1,000. He is not quite so skilful as his comrade. In other branches there are men who do as well,—men who run the heeling machines, for instance. All machine operators have more steady employment than men who work by hand. The lasters, trimmers, edgemakers, and heelers have less fortunate and remunerative jobs; yet an edgemaker will sometimes earn \$50 in a week. And yet those that earn \$45 and \$50 a week at the highest, will not have received any more the year through than a hod carrier with steady employment. One man earned as a laster \$1,045 in the working year, but he was one of a very few, who could do the work of three ordinary men in the same time. The earnings of the medium class range from \$600 to \$800 per year, the average being much nearer the former than the latter figures. There is quite a class of men who work by the week. They get from \$12 to

\$15, and are unemployed as much as the rest. The lowest paid workers earn from \$200 to \$600 per annum. The average, taking the mass together, would not probably be far from \$600, which sum would only give a small family a hand-to-mouth subsistence.

Very few family men do more than meet their household expenses with their year's earnings, though the majority are comparatively free from debt. With twelve months of work at current prices, it would be quite possible for a man with a moderate family to lay up \$200 per year; under the present circumstances he can barely come out square. One witness says:—

“Men holding good positions in our shop have been obliged to borrow money of their employer to carry them over into the next season. They would be compelled to do so on account of some extra outlay—the confinement of a wife, sickness, or something of the sort.”

Another says:—

“Have known instances where men have been in actual distress, where they have come to the lodge and begged for money, where they have got \$100 behind; and this from no fault or wrong-doing on their part. I have known children to be kept out of school, for lack of money for clothes and books. I know a family that went visiting for two days, because there was nothing in the house to eat. The father was a steady man, but out of work.”

Another case:—

“A relative of mine came here from another town with his family. He kept about even for three years. Business became dull. Work was constantly promised him, but he could get only three or four dollars a week. He had a good deal of sickness in the family. In the fall he could get no work, and by winter not only had not enough to get out of town with, but was \$60 in debt. He worked every day he could get employ, and never drank, gambled or spent a dollar uselessly. That case represents hundreds. The general way of providing is to buy a bag of flour, a quarter of tea, and a couple of pounds of butter. Not one in ten can put in the winter's coal ahead, and after the harbor is frozen up you have to pay an advance.”

The general intelligence of the Lynn shoemakers is good. Most have a fair common school education. It is a very rare thing to find one that is compelled to make his mark on the pay roll, and the man who has the most extensive acquaintance in the Crispin organization, some two thousand strong, says he knows but one member whose name has to be written for him. All can read, but some not very fluently. As a general thing, the lectures are paid for and attended by the wealthier classes, the money for carrying them on being procured by subscription. One who is conversant with this matter says :—

“The best time for circuses or minstrels to come among us is Saturday. These are generally well attended; still I think any one understanding his subject, and having ample means for illustrating the natural sciences, would find it difficult to get a hall large enough to hold those who would go to hear him. The majority, in my opinion, would patronize the latter entertainment in preference to the former.”

As to church-going and Sunday observance, one gives it as his opinion that nine-tenths spend the Sabbath in worship and rest. Another expresses himself to this effect :—

“The shoemakers of Lynn, as a rule, do not attend church. In the summer season great numbers of them go to Nahant. Picnic teams start at nine o’clock, and run all the forenoon and afternoon. They are generally crowded every Sunday. The women and children go with them. I think, however, that an absolute majority of them spend their Sundays at home in their own houses.

“During the intervals between the seasons of work, though very many are idle, the city is as quiet and orderly as any city in the Commonwealth. You will often find the men about the post-office or periodical stores, off yachting or away visiting their friends, or at home reading or studying about public affairs, perhaps receiving visits, or doing jobs about the house. There is very little actual dissipation.

“Intemperance often has its beginning in the exhaustion following overwork in the season of drive. After the season opens, and when they begin to look thin, worn and ‘played out,’ the men will be seen going into beer-shops for a glass of ale. Still, seventy or eighty per cent. are temperate men.

“There is much enforced idleness in the busy season, in order to recruit one’s temporarily exhausted energies. There are always some men out, and when you lie by, you can turn your work over to another.

“Organization is cherished as a means of maintaining the rate of wages, and of controlling in a measure the supply of labor. The Crispins have three lodges and a very large membership. The binders are organized. There is also a union among the McKay operators. But a limited number of this class of workmen are required—perhaps there may be 120 in the city of Lynn. They have an organization, fix their prices, and teach no new hands. These machine operators have things much after their own way, because small in numbers and easily united. These unions are found beneficial through the responsibilities imposed upon their members, and the feeling of fraternity engendered. Before unions were established, the man or men who directly presented a request for a general increase of wages was very likely to be discharged as a stirrer up of sedition. Now organization on the one side treats with organization on the other. Some complain of the disposition on the part of manufacturers to drive independent, thoughtful labor from the shops, and to substitute in its place subservient labor, no matter from where obtained. The independent man only holds his place, by his fellows sticking to him and making his cause their own. A voluntary rise of wages by a manufacturer has never taken place, except when word got out that a demand would be made to that effect.

“Several of the manufacturers have sprung from the bench, but most of their money has been made since the war broke out. One made \$1,800 a day for awhile, when prices went up rapidly. The feeling of manufacturers towards their workmen differs; some think of them as of the men that dig their ditches or take care of their horses; others show feelings of respect, and treat them as men rather than tools.”

One of the most intelligent of the workmen expresses himself generally in these words:—

“I am greatly interested in the investigation of this question,—have taken a great deal of interest in labor organizations and conventions. I feel that the working men do not occupy the same relative positions as other classes in the community; that they are falling behind; that they do not get as much proportionate pay for their labor, as the manufacturers do for their capital. I feel as

though every man's effort was needed in order to effect an improvement."

The Business Elsewhere.

In the testimony upon strikes, and in the Appendix, will be found further information upon the relations of employers and employed in this branch of business. Among the cases that came under the observation of the Bureau at North Adams, the following one has several points of special interest:—

A shoemaker 37 years of age, attended school until 15 years old, and then went into a cotton factory and worked five years, commencing work often at half-past four in the morning, and working 14 and 15 hours a day. As a change, went into a shoe shop and stayed there six weeks at \$3 a week. Was about to abandon it, thinking he could not stand it, and return to the factory, where he had an offer of \$1.25 per day, when the shoe boss urged him to take out a case of shoes and see if he could not make them. Was afraid to try it, because he knew so little about the trade; but at last concluded to do so. Finally made up three cases, and received the usual price for them. Felt pretty well about it, and has worked at the trade ever since. Is now working as a coöperator, and has a full share in the profits and benefits of that system of labor.

The suggestive thing in this experience is, that the impulse of the age must be towards progress, when in a single generation a wage laborer can pass through three stages of employment, each distinguished in so marked a manner from its predecessor.

At this point we introduce a general table covering information relating to all, or nearly all, the subdivisions of the Apparel Division, excepting numbers six and twelve (Cotton and Woollen), which require special tables. In the text matter under the subdivision heads will be found certain aggregates, averages and detailed statements of interest:—

DIVISION I.—MISCELLANEOUS APPAREL.

TABLE No. IV.—Wages.

No. of Blank.	TRADE OR OCCUPATION.	WAGES PER DAY.				HIGHEST AND LOWEST EARNINGS PER MONTH.							
		Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Men.		Women.		Young Persons.		Children.	
		Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
	<i>Buttons,—</i>												
1	Foreman, . . .	\$3 50	\$1 50			\$130 00	\$65 00	\$39 00	-	-	-	-	-
1	Mechanics, . . .	2 50	-	\$1 25		91 00	52 00	-	-	-	-	-	-
1	Button Makers, . . .	1 62	1 15	1 00	\$0 45	58 00	30 00	40 00	\$22 00	\$30 00	\$15 00	\$15 00	\$10 00
1	General work, . . .	1 50	1 00	1 00		45 00	26 00	35 00	28 00	30 00	24 00	-	-
2	Button Makers, . . .	2 75	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	General work, . . .	1 33	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	Button Makers, . . .	2 37	92	80		71 50	38 00	30 00	18 00	42 00	17 00	-	-
4	Foreman, . . .	3 00	-	-		78 00	52 00	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	Mechanics, . . .	2 75	-	-		78 00	65 00	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	Button Makers, . . .	-	-	-		-	-	39 00	17 00	39 00	17 00	-	-
4	General labor, . . .	2 00	-	-		65 00	39 00	-	-	-	-	-	-
	<i>Hats,—</i>												
5	Hatters, . . .	2 35	1 00	90	67	250 00	14 00	40 00	18 00	50 00	18 00	18 00	14 00
6	Hatters, . . .	1 75	-	1 00	85	58 00	25 00	-	-	33 00	17 00	15 00	-
7	Hatters, . . .	2 50	1 50	80	-	150 00	26 87	66 45	24 00	19 34	15 50	-	-
8	Hatters, . . .	2 00	2 00	76	50	66 29	22 50	36 41	17 47	41 47	12 81	10 42	9 06
	<i>Hosiery,—</i>												
9	Weavers, . . .	-	-	-	-	85 00	25 00	40 00	18 00	30 00	-	-	-
9	Finishing, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	40 00	18 00	25 00	15 00	-	-
9	Winding, . . .	-	-	-	-	50 00	-	-	-	-	-	10 00	5 00

[illegible]

SUBDIVISION 2. *Bonnets.*

No returns received. This business is doubtless connected intimately with others, concerning which details are given elsewhere.

SUBDIVISION 3. *Buttons.*

Number employed in 4 establishments, 354; highest 166, lowest 9; 65 more could be readily employed; ratio of native to foreign, 184 to 170. Number of men, 88; women, 85; young persons, 161; children, 20, the latter all employed in the largest establishment. The young persons and children are mainly girls.

Hours of labor per week, 60, in all cases. Saturday time, $8\frac{1}{2}$, $8\frac{3}{4}$, 9 and 10, respectively. Dinner time, in one 50, and in the rest 60 minutes.

Unable to read and write, 14, all foreign born.

Board of men, \$6 to \$4.50; women, \$4 to \$2.50.

Wages for men—highest, \$3.50; lowest, \$1.33; average, \$2.33. Women—highest, \$1 50; lowest, 92 cents; average, \$1.14. Young persons—highest, \$1.25; lowest, 80 cents; average, \$1.05. Children, average 45 cents.

Earnings per month of men—highest, \$130; lowest, \$30. Women—highest, \$40; lowest, \$17. Young persons—highest, \$42; lowest, \$15. Children—highest, \$15; lowest, \$10.

Average pay per day to each person employed, 92 cents.

Two of these establishments are in eastern and two in western Massachusetts.

The most minute classification given us as to subdivision of employment occurs in the return of a vegetable ivory button establishment, and is as follows: three foremen, eight sawyers, thirty-six turners, four machinists, three carpenters, two teamsters, one box cutter, one dyer, one fireman, five tool sharpeners, ten drillers, thirty carders, fifteen rimmers, twenty-four polishers, thirteen sorters, two boxers, eight box makers. In this manufactory the piece-workers include 130 of a total of 166. Though twenty children are employed, the proprietor is not dependent on their labor. The parents are mostly French and Irish, and are comparatively indifferent as to the schooling of their children. They are turned out at the beginning of the term, but soon find their way back or go elsewhere. Has de-

cided to adopt the system of reliefs to make sure in the matter. There is a good deal of family labor, the numbers in each family at work varying between two and six. The highest family earnings per month amount to \$130, for work done by the father and his two boys and three girls. Half a dozen families earn from \$100 to \$130 a month. The proprietor does not think that there is often any real necessity for the children to work. He has sixteen or eighteen tenements, the average rental of which is \$75 per year. The machinery runs steadily through the year, and the business is healthy.

In the oldest button establishment in the State, founded in 1848, nearly all the working force is composed of women and girls of American birth—an excellent class of workers in every respect. Some have been employed from the beginning. The number fluctuates between 125 and 175; 100 board at the company boarding-house, at a cost of \$2.25 per week. The house is well spoken of.

SUBDIVISION 4. *Caps and Hats.*

Number employed in 4 factories, 478; highest 238, lowest 25; ratio of native to foreign, 245 to 233. Number of men 231; women, 81; young persons, 137; children, 29, three factories having, respectively, 3, 4 and 22.

Hours of labor per week, 60 in all cases. Saturday time—one $8\frac{1}{2}$, two 9 and one 10 hours. Dinner time—one 30 minutes, one 45 minutes and two 60 minutes.

Unable to read and write, 51; native, 4; foreign, 47.

Board of men—highest, \$5; lowest, \$3. Women—highest, \$3.50; lowest, \$2.50.

Wages of men—highest, \$2.50; lowest, \$1.75. Women—highest, \$2; lowest, \$1. Young persons—highest, \$1; lowest, 75 cents. Children—highest, 85 cents; lowest, 50 cents.

Earnings per month, of men—highest, \$150; lowest, \$14. Women—highest, \$66.45; lowest, \$17.47. Young persons—highest, \$50; lowest, \$15.15. Children—highest, \$18; lowest, \$9. Average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.43.

Most of the hat factories are in Essex County. The classification by rooms is given as “trimming,” “finishing,” “carding,” and “miscellaneous.” In a hat forming mill the force of twenty-five is subdivided as follows: one feeder, one hardener,

one mixer, one weigher, two blowers, two boys, two coners and fifteen formers.

A manufacturer in Middlesex County has furnished his employés with a reading and recreation room, furnished, warmed, lighted and kept in order at his own expense. The arrangement is reported as very popular with the employés. A fashionable custom manufacturer in Boston reports the employment of five men and two women, regular hands, the former earning an average of \$1,000, and the latter an average of \$600 per annum. A custom silk hat manufacturer in Boston gives as his average wages, to men \$25, women, \$10, and young persons \$8 per week for the season.

The working season seems to include rather less than eight months of the year. Other details given under Class III., page 209.

SUBDIVISION 5. *Clothing.*

This business centres in Boston, and full particulars are given in its appropriate place under Class III., pages 210 to 215.

SUBDIVISION 6. *Cotton.*

Information, more or less complete, was obtained concerning about one-third of the cotton establishments in the Commonwealth, so far as known to us. Nine counties are represented in the table. Omitting a number of imperfect returns, the reports of 38 establishments are tabulated herewith:—

TABLE No. I.—Cotton.

No. of Blank.	COUNTY.	EMPLOYES.						HOURS OF LABOR.		PRICE OF BOARD.		Time allowed for dinner, in minutes.		
		Whole No. Employed.	Whole No. Required.	Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Per Week.	Saturday.		Men.	Women.
1	Berkshire, .	84	-	40	44	30	4	40	10	66	9½	\$4 25	\$2 50	45
2		64	70	43	21	20	7	35	2	66	10	4 00	3 00	60
3		273	-	28	245	97	123	18	35	64	9	4 50	3 00	-
4		72	-	13	59	29	15	26	2	66	-	-	-	-
5		60	65	20	40	10	20	20	20	10	66	8	-	-
6	Bristol, .	160	-	4	155	35	80	35	-	66	8½	4 75	3 00	45
7		490	517	44	476	206	234	77	77	-	66	8½	5 00	3 00
8	Essex, .	306	350	134	172	119	60	78	49	64½	9½	4 50	3 50	60
9		804	900	195	609	238	382	163	1	64½	9½	3 50	2 50	60
10		1,153	1,200	507	646	334	819	333	40	60	7½	4 00	2 50	60
11		155	175	39	116	44	73	38	-	64½	9½	3 75	2 75	60
12		260	280	110	150	68	111	60	21	66	-	5 00	3 50	45
13		290	-	76	214	59	145	63	23	66	8½	4 50	3 00	45
14		3,534	4,150	704	2,830	900	1,293	1,341	-	64½	9½	3 50	2 50	60
15		Franklin, .	44	-	41	3	12	8	18	6	60	8½	-	-
16	174		180	84	90	59	60	40	15	66	8½	3 50	2 75	30
17	Hampden, .	60	-	2	58	24	12	20	4	-	-	-	-	-
18		301	-	27	274	55	151	66	29	-	9	4 00	3 25	45
19		430	442	82	348	119	157	80	74	-	-	3 50	2 75	45
20		1,646	1,700	548	1,098	374	721	307	20	67½	10	3 50	2 50	45

21	Hampshire,	77	80	1	76	9	32	26	10	66	$9\frac{1}{2}$	\$5 00	\$2 00	45
22		826	950	175	651	172	321	186	147	66	$9\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	2 75	45
23		338	350	44	294	142	71	90	35	67 $\frac{1}{4}$	9	4 50	3 00	45
24	Middlesex,	215	-	107	108	55	60	58	17	66	$8\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	2 50	45
25		869	957	316	553	192	482	171	24	66	$9\frac{1}{2}$	3 50	2 25	45
26		1,300	1,500	433	867	408	892	-	18	66	$9\frac{1}{2}$	3 50	2 25	45
27		1,984	2,090	-	-	368	1,616	-	-	66	$9\frac{1}{2}$	3 50	2 25	45
28		1,084	1,267	407	677	236	607	212	34	66	$9\frac{1}{2}$	3 50	2 75	45
29		487	-	124	363	121	206	160	-	66	$9\frac{1}{2}$	3 50	2 25	45
30	Norfolk,	25	-	4	21	4	6	11	4	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	-	2 33	60
31		167	-	16	151	50	65	32	-	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	$9\frac{1}{2}$	4 50	2 75	45
32		296	375	200	96	85	60	94	57	69	$9\frac{1}{2}$	4 50	3 00	45
33		140	-	51	89	48	38	20	34	66	$8\frac{1}{2}$	3 75	2 75	30
34	Worcester,	260	-	56	204	97	109	30	24	67	$10\frac{1}{2}$	3 25	2 00	45
35		180	-	23	157	35	41	71	17	66	$8\frac{1}{2}$	-	-	30
36		68	73	2	66	16	10	27	15	68	$9\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	2 50	45
37		90	-	12	78	21	26	24	19	66	$8\frac{1}{2}$	3 75	2 75	30
38		64	65	6	58	11	17	22	14	66	$8\frac{1}{2}$	3 50	2 50	45

[illegible]

21	Hampshire,	{ . }	\$2 75	\$1 00	\$0 83	\$1 10	\$3 00	\$1 70	\$1 20	\$1 05	\$3 25	\$1 87	\$10,943 73
22			2 75	1 77	1 25	\$1	2 75	1 71	-	-	3 00	1 87	24,289 94
23			2 75	1 63	1 48	-	-	-	-	1 23	2 87	1 87	61,665 81
24	Middlesex,	{ . }	2 25	1 58	1 35	-	-	-	1 50	-	-	2 14	33,228 90
25			3 66	1 63	1 05	88	3 00	1 75	85	-	3 00	2 15	-
26			3 25	1 87	1 13	-	2 75	1 75	90	-	3 00	2 26	223,928 60
27			3 50	2 12	1 13	-	3 00	-	1 00	-	4 05	2 25	288,179 89
28			3 50	1 96	1 12	-	2 75	1 62	90	-	3 50	2 01	185,478 26
29			3 00	2 48	87	1 20	3 00	1 50	1 00	-	4 00	1 92	80,440 80
30	Norfolk,	{ . }	2 50	-	92	88	-	-	-	-	-	2 37½	3,548 70
31			-	-	-	1 45	1 07	-	-	-	-	-	24,276 15
32			-	-	-	1 88	1 25	1 00	-	-	-	-	52,000 00
33			3 00	1 71	1 50	58	-	1 50	-	-	-	2 53	23,036 75
34	Worcester,	{ . }	-	1 70	1 23	1 35	2 50	1 43	-	-	-	1 89	50,408 78
35			2 50	1 34	92	75	2 00	-	-	50	-	1 24	22,061 00
36			2 75	-	-	64	-	-	-	94	-	1 96	15,473 00
37			2 50	-	1 16	81	-	-	-	-	3 50	1 37	12,414 33
38			2 25	1 50	80	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 71	8,801 89

Whole number Employed, Required, Native, . Foreign, .	Whole number Men, Women, . Young Persons, Children,				4,912 12,785 4,588 820			
	18,830 20,668 4,719 15,815						
			
			

Taking the whole number employed in 33 establishments that returned a total of wages for 6 months, we find that 17,169 persons received \$2,156,084 89, which, allowing 156 working days for 6 months, gives 80½ cents average pay per day.

Ownership and Management.

The total amount of capital represented in forty-one establishments is reported as \$2,441,600, which gives an average of nearly \$60,000. The number of shares are 45,640. Fifteen corporations have their shares rated at the nominal value of \$100; two at \$500; thirteen at \$100.

In Fall River two kinds of mill corporations are found: (1) those with a limited and (2) those with a numerous ownership.

The treasurer of a mill of the first class thus testifies:—

“My duties are to make the purchases, buy the cotton and coal, make the sales, and generally to superintend the business. The goods go direct to the print works, and from thence find their way to the market. Package goods are not made at all. We are a corporation working under a charter from the State. The capital stock is \$500,000; par value of shares \$1,000; number of shareholders 5 or 6. It is a close corporation—a family concern. Mr. D., a young man, owns half the mill; I own a third, and my brothers and sisters the rest. None of its stock has ever been in the market. The present value of shares is \$1,200 or \$1,300. Number of spindles 40,320; production, 240,000 pieces (45 yards to the piece) a year. We have never made dividends. The government tax on our earnings is paid individually. The shareholders have neither paid assessments nor received profits; as treasurer have never received a cent for services. We have made money, however. I bought very largely of cotton when it was low soon after we started, and we have not lost anything since. Our goods and business are such that we can tell, to the smallest fraction, what we are getting. Sometimes we have opportunities to sell six months ahead; but dare not, on account of the help. We have just commenced digging the foundation for a new mill, and when we make money it is expended in that way. The parties all have other resources, and, not needing the dividends, are content to have them accumulate in that way.”

The treasurer of a mill of the second class says:—

“Our stockholders are mostly acquainted with the management of mills; all classes are represented; 350 shares are owned by about 100 persons, the largest amount held by one person being 40 shares. Three of the mills latest built are owned in much the same way. With 200 hands 2,500 pieces of print goods are made

per week. Taking an average period of years our dividends would be ten per cent., in semi-annual dividends of five per cent. In some mills here large profits were made during the war. One of them, engaged in the production of print cloths, had an original capital of \$175,000, which now probably represents an investment of \$800,000. None of the stock of our mills is ever thrown into the market. All is taken up there. I think these shares would bring \$4,000 on a par value of \$1,000. The capital in that city is almost entirely owned among families there, or by our own citizens. It is very different there from any other place I ever heard of, as, instead of being built upon foreign [or outside] capital, the capital is all owned and kept there. All classes of people have invested, even operatives themselves to some extent—as I personally know—and weavers, as distinguished from overseers.”

As the work at the Fall River mills is mainly done by the labor of families of operatives, so the family element enters into their management and supervision. A few principal names only occur in connection with manufacturing and financial enterprises of all kinds in that city. As presidents, directors, treasurers, agents, superintendents, corporation clerks, etc., one of these family names appears 97 times, another 50, a third 40, a fourth 17, and a fifth 14 times.

The incorporated mills of other places find a majority of their stockholders elsewhere, largely in Boston, where most of them are managed.

Employees.

The total number employed in 38 concerns is 18,830, which gives an average of about 495. The highest number actually reported among these is 3,534, and the lowest 25. There are small private mills, employing from 12 to 20. The number required by the machinery is reported by the same 38 establishments as 20,668, a difference of 1,858.

The ratio of native to foreign appears to be as 4,719 to 15,815; the highest ratio in favor of the native element being as 41 to 3, and of the foreign as 76 to 1. Only 3 out of 38 have a majority of natives. The freshest and most abundant foreign element introduced, has been the French Canadian, especially in central and western Massachusetts. In many the leading element is Irish. Some of the Fall River manufacturers express alarm at the fact that the English and Irish are getting up to

American ideas and demands, and so have been considering the employment of Chinamen. A factory owner in Franklin County having two mills, an old and a new one, has a preponderance of American labor (farmers' sons and daughters) in the old, and nearly all French in the new. A manufacturer employing a thousand people gives the foreign proportion as two-thirds, and in the following order of numerical precedence: Irish, French, English, Scotch and German. The French have the reputation of being a very fluctuating and penurious class, as well as very indifferent to matters of education and improvement. They often stay only two or three years in the States and then float back to Canada with the money they have earned here.

Classified according to age the proportion is as follows: men 4,912; women, 12,785; young persons, 4,588; children, 820. An agent running three mills says that two-ninths of his working force are less than twenty-one years of age, and of the remainder two-fifths are men and three-fifths are women. Upon that basis he would have 280 men, 420 women, and 200 minors. The statement concerning children in our totals is probably under the truth somewhat, as the proportion of those under 15 years to those over would only be as 1 to 203. Selfish interests of a double nature would conspire to suggest a low estimate as to children. The ratio, according to our totals, between those of legal age and those in their minority is as 20,403 to 5,408, or nearly 4 to 1. A manufacturer in Northern Worcester makes this statement: "All that we know of are over 15. We cannot always tell the ages of young persons. They sometimes claim to be older than they are in order to secure work in the mill."

[The discrepancy existing between "total employes," and "grand total of native and foreign," and the total classification under "men, women, young persons and children," in the last and other tables, is due to the fact that many of the blanks were returned with incomplete classifications.]

• *Hours of Labor.*

Out of 35 reports giving the hours of labor per week, 20 establishments make 66 the rule. The remaining 15 are divided as follows: one at 69, one at 68, one at $67\frac{3}{4}$, one at $67\frac{1}{2}$, one at 67, one at $66\frac{1}{2}$, five at $64\frac{1}{2}$, one at 64, one at $63\frac{1}{2}$ and two at 60

hours. Nine are thus found to be working under the standard rule. Of these four of the five running $64\frac{1}{2}$ hours are in Lawrence, and the other in Sharon; the one at 64 hours is in South Adams; that at $63\frac{1}{2}$ hours is in Sharon; and of the two at 60, one is in Lawrence and the other in Conway, the latter representing an average rather than a constant quantity, the mills not running regularly.

The custom as to hours of labor on Saturday is very variable. In 33 cases the reports are as follows: one, $10\frac{3}{4}$; two, 10; six, $9\frac{3}{4}$; seven, $9\frac{1}{2}$; two, $9\frac{1}{4}$; three, 9; one, $8\frac{3}{4}$; eight, $8\frac{1}{2}$; one, $8\frac{1}{3}$; one, 8; one, $7\frac{1}{2}$. Eighteen being over 9, and fifteen 9 and less.

Board.

The price of board for men ranges between \$5 and \$3.25; for women, between \$3.50 and \$2; average for men \$4; for women \$2.75.

The usual allowance of time for dinner is 45 minutes. Of thirty-four reporting, five give but 30 minutes, while seven give a full hour; the latter custom being specially prevalent in Lawrence.

Educational.

The ratio in our returns of native to foreign, unable to read and write, is as 1 to 210; of the number unable to read and write to the whole, as 1 to $6\frac{2}{3}$. One manufacturer makes this report: Out of seventy-seven, as many as fifty-two can read and write, sixteen can read only, while nine can do neither,—one being an idiot, five grown women, and three French Canadians. One of the large corporations in Lawrence reports that all born in the United States can read and write. A Lowell corporation reports that 68 cannot read and 112 cannot write, out of a working force of 473. In many cases, especially of small establishments, all can read and write. One concern in Chicopee says that four-ninths of the whole are unable to read and write, while another in the same town gives the percentage as one-half. In another, with 430 operatives, 100 could neither read nor write. 36 establishments report 3,374 persons that can neither read nor write, an average of over 93 to each. But of these, 828 are in one mill, and ten mills report less than 10 in each.

As to legal schooling for children, there is considerable diversity of fact and statement. Many large manufacturers admit its non-enforcement, but charge the delinquency mainly to the parents. A Chicopee manufacturer says: "Don't know that any now have their legal schooling, though none work over sixty hours per week. The right spot is not touched now; would put the parents in the lock-up and send the children to school." In North Adams a gentleman in the business says: "Our children are much interested in their schooling, but don't get their legal amount. We take them in out of pity, the parents tell such stories of their need." Another says: "We employ twenty-one children, but all do not have their legal schooling." Some factory communities have schools wholly to themselves—that is, form a school district by themselves. Three places only have prosperous and well-managed factory schools. Many employers do not report the matter at all, or say they cannot tell. Quite a number report that all have had the schooling they are entitled to; and still others that they are sent out for the purpose regularly, and beyond that nothing is known.

Wages.

The tables give, in each column, the averages. The general averages are as follows: *Carding-room*—overseers, \$2.90; men, \$1.55; women, 97 cents; young persons, 74 cents; children, 60 cents. *Spinning-room*—overseers, \$2.87½; men, \$1.40; women, 94 cents; young persons, 87 cents; children, 50 cents. *Dressing-room*—overseers, \$2.93; men, \$1.90; women, \$1.10; young persons, 87 cents. *Weaving-room*—overseers, \$3; men, \$1.75; women, \$1.18; young persons, \$1.10. *Cloth-room*—overseers, \$2.57; men, \$1.40; women, \$1.07; young persons, 96 cents. *Repair shop*—overseers, \$3.25; men, \$2. Average pay per day to each person employed, about 81 cents.

Earnings.

From eight of the most complete returns, representing six counties, we give the earnings for six months in the different subdivisions of labor, and an estimate on the same basis for twelve months.

TABLE NO. II.—COTTON—*Earnings.*

No. of Persons in each Oc- cupation.	OCCUPATION.	EARNINGS FOR SIX MONTHS.			Year Earnings.
		Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	
Carding Room.					
17	Overseers,	\$618 00	\$374 37	\$496 18	\$992 36
21	Second hands,	361 00	257 31	309 15	618 30
20	Third hands,	283 00	174 30	228 65	457 30
75	Picker tenders,	232 00	143 50	187 75	375 50
50 {	Railway tenders,	147 00	98 81	122 90	225 80
	Children,	75 40	50 00	62 70	125 40
4	Slubber tenders,	111 00	109 00	110 00	-
81	Drawing frame tenders,	116 00	85 57	100 78	201 56
8	Fly frame tenders,	134 00	100 00	117 00	-
302	Speeder tenders,	185 00	119 25	152 11	304 22
17	Picker boys,	154 30	115 00	134 50	269 00
4	Card boys,	60 00	50 00	55 00	110 00
71	Grinders,	286 00	209 30	247 65	495 30
104	Strippers,	215 00	148 18	181 59	363 18
3	Card tenders,	186 00	175 00	180 50	361 00
8	Sweepers,	78 00	47 00	62 50	125 00
46	Other hands,	155 00	77 00	116 00	232 00
Spinning Room.					
18	Overseers,	552 00	329 61	440 80	881 60
27	Second hands,	358 00	253 60	305 80	611 60
24	Third hands,	277 00	156 00	216 50	433 00
21	Section hands,	269 00	100 00	184 50	368 00
124	Mule spinners,	364 00	106 00	235 00	470 00
106 {	Doffers,	186 00	94 17	140 08	240 16
	Children,	69 00	60 00	64 50	129 00
147	Mule backside piecers,	109 00	30 00	69 50	139 00
523 {	Frame spinners,	160 00	104 17	132 58	265 16
	Children,	85 75	30 00	57 87	115 74
18	Sweepers,	60 00	47 00	53 50	107 00
82	Other hands,	155 00	77 00	116 00	232 00
Dressing Room.					
13	Overseers,	546 00	331 00	438 50	877 00
17	Second hands,	327 00	214 17	270 58	541 16
13	Third hands,	277 00	156 00	216 50	432 00
20	Section hands,	231 00	110 00	170 50	340 00
228	Spoolers,	163 40	50 00	106 50	213 00
124	Warpers and reelers,	209 00	77 00	143 00	286 00
24	Drawers and twisters,	175 00	108 00	141 50	283 00
104	Drawing-in hands,	237 38	81 00	159 19	318 38
81	Dressers,	565 00	180 00	372 50	745 00
9	Beamers,	240 50	218 25	229 37	458 74
1	Slasher tender,	367 50	-	367 50	734 00
8	Other hands,	116 00	-	116 00	232 00

TABLE NO. II.—*Cotton*—Concluded.

Nn. of Persons in each Oc- cupation.	O C C U P A T I O N .	EARNINGS FOR SIX MONTHS.			Year Earnings.
		Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	
<i>Weaving Room.</i>					
18	Overseers,	\$546 00	\$379 26	\$462 63	\$925 26
32	Second hands,	378 75	269 50	324 12	648 24
42	Third hands,	279 00	164 00	221 50	443 00
43	Room girls,	234 00	89 00	162 50	325 00
54	Cloth girls,	202 00	175 00	178 50	357 00
1,721	Weavers,	351 00	63 00	207 00	414 00
38	Other hands,	180 00	77 00	128 50	256 00
<i>Knitting Room.</i>					
192	Men,	380 25	240 00	310 12	620 24
	Women,	225 60	167 80	196 70	393 40
	Young Persons,	135 75	116 40	126 07	252 14
	Children,	75 00	64 80	69 90	139 80
<i>Cloth Room.</i>					
7	Overseers,	468 00	286 00	377 00	754 00
5	Second hands,	310 00	269 00	289 50	579 00
101	Other hands,	264 25	62 00	163 12	326 24
44	Folders and trimmers,	195 00	63 50	129 25	258 50
<i>Dye House and Bleachery.</i>					
20	Dyers,	230 75	210 25	220 50	441 00
100	Bleachers,	375 10	116 00	245 55	510 84
<i>Repair Shop and General Labor.</i>					
6	Foremen,	675 00	450 00	562 50	1,125 00
72	Carpenters,	452 61	155 00	303 80	607 60
74	Machinists,	506 00	190 20	348 10	696 20
3	Engineers,	397 00	265 00	331 00	662 00
11	Firemen,	308 00	235 00	271 50	543 00
7	Overseers of yard,	439 16	230 00	334 50	665 00
103	Laborers,	336 41	187 00	261 70	523 40
47	Watchmen,	335 00	136 00	235 00	470 00
19	Painters,	400 42	155 00	277 71	545 42
2	Masons,	269 00	—	269 00	538 00
2	Belt makers,	340 00	302 00	321 00	642 00
1	Roll coverer,	—	—	—	—
1	Wheel tender,	332 29	—	332 29	664 58

Comparing one class with another class, without regard to the number employed in each, the average yearly earnings would be about \$425, which would give the daily average pay of \$1.33. Adding up the whole number employed, however, and comparing it with the amount reported as paid out

for wages in these eight different establishments, the average actually reaches only \$1.08 per person per day.

The average pay per day at the Atlantic Mills at Lawrence is a trifle over \$1.08 per person, which puts it fully up to the average of the eight establishments already given, and considerably ahead of the general average of cotton mills. It runs but 60 hours per week, and the evidence seems to be conclusive that the reduction of hours has not diminished wages, inasmuch as the average hours of the eight mills already alluded to, is $66\frac{1}{8}$ per week.

It may be of interest to know where the mills are located whose returns have appeared in the Earnings Table. They are distributed as follows: Chicopee, one; Fall River, two; Lawrence, one; Lowell, one; Newburyport, one; Ware, one; and Warren, one.

Cotton Factories.

Three or four returns came in on blanks not susceptible of tabulation. One, representing a small establishment in Plymouth County, employing 17 persons and working 69 hours a week, gives the wages of men as from \$1.75 to \$1.33 per day, women from 83 to 67 cents, and children from 58 to 50 cents. Average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.01.

At another in Norfolk County, at which a strike occurred in 1869 against a reduction of wages, and where 50 men are employed and 97 women and young persons, the average pay per day to each person employed, reaches a trifle over 93 cents. Time per week, $64\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

At a third, in Hampshire County, where Canadian help is largely employed, and where the working force includes 9 men, 32 women, 26 young persons and 10 children, the average pay per day to each person employed gives 91 cents on 66 hours of labor per week.

A corporation in Middlesex County employs 1,209 persons, divided as 284 men, 644 women, 194 young persons and 87 children; native, 774, foreign, 435. Wages of men from \$2 to \$1.50; women from \$1.16 to 90 cents; young persons from \$1 to 75 cents; children 50 cents. Earnings of men for six months, from \$507 to \$175; women from \$195 to \$116; young persons, from \$150 to \$80; children, from \$78 to \$50. A

bleachery and dye-house and hosiery mill are attached. In the latter the wages range between \$1.83 and 50 cents; the earnings for six months, from \$360 to \$63. In the former, the wages are from \$1.50 to 87 cents; earnings, between \$300 and \$70. Average pay per day to each person employed, a trifle less than \$1.20. Hours of labor, $64\frac{1}{2}$ per week.

We now pass to a consideration of some of the allied or collateral industries that may be grouped under this subdivision.

Cotton Duck.

In an establishment in Essex County, with a force of 155, the division gives 44 men, 73 women and 38 young persons.

The average wages of men range between \$2 and \$1.33 in different departments; women from \$1.09 to 90 cents; young persons, from \$1 to 67 cents.

The earnings for six months, in the carding room, range between \$529 and \$105; spinning room, from \$460 to \$116; in the twisting room, from \$482 to \$102; and in the weaving room, from \$525 to \$80.

The average pay per day to each person employed is a fraction over \$1.08. Number of hours per week, $64\frac{1}{2}$.

Another establishment in Norfolk County employing about one-sixth as many as the above, two-thirds of the working force being under 21 years of age, gives an average pay per day to each person employed of 91 cents; hours of labor per week, $63\frac{1}{2}$.

Cotton Batting.

An establishment in Plymouth County employing 45 persons, all native, classifies them as, men 33, women 7 and young persons 5. Earnings for six months, from \$546 to \$102. Average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.98. Hours of labor, 60 per week.

Braid and Wicking.

A braid mill in Middlesex County reports the average wages of men as \$1.65; women \$1.15, and young persons 75 cents. Hours of labor, 60 per week.

A firm in business in Norfolk County in the manufacture of braids and wicks, reports 12 persons employed,—2 men, 3 women, 6 young persons and 1 child. Average wages,—men, \$2.50; women, \$1.25; young persons, 94 cents; children, 50

cents ; earnings for six months, from \$400 to \$75. Average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.21½. Hours of labor, 60 per week.

Cotton Thread.

Returns from 5 establishments. Two firms in Plymouth County report 70 persons employed, all but 14 being native, and classified as, men, 14 ; women, 22 ; young persons, 30 ; children 4. Excepting the bleacher and colorer and the superintendent, at \$4, the wages of men average from \$2.33 (box-makers) to \$1.58 (packers) ; women, from \$1 to 84 cents ; young persons, from \$1 to 77 cents ; children from 65 to 40 cents. The subdivision is given as carding and preparation, spinning and twisting, bleaching and coloring, spooling and dressing, winding, packing, oversight and repairs, and boxmaking. Average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.02. Hours of labor, 56¼ and 66 per week.

There are three large establishments near each other in Hampshire and Hampden Counties. They employ 1,185 persons, foreign and native being in the ratio of 674 to 61, and the proportion as to age and sex being as 163 men to 260 women, 211 young persons and 111 children, or 163 men to 582 others.

The wages of men are reported as from \$3.25 to \$1.25 ; women, from \$2 to 81 cents ; young persons, from \$1.34 to 65 cents ; children, from 75 to 20 cents. Hours of labor, 65, 60 and 58 per week ; 9 and 8 on Saturdays. Dinner-time, 45 minutes.

The foreign labor employed is mostly French or Irish. One return gives 200 out of 434 as unable to read or write, but the school-house on the ground in this case gives some promise of an improvement.

Average pay per day to each person employed in two establishments, a fraction less than 93 cents.

The subdivision of labor is indicated in the report of one corporation as follows : card room, 70 ; spinners, 77 ; twist-ers, 100 ; thread room, 34 ; dyers, 8 ; reelers, 33 ; spoolers, 15 ; dressers, 11 ; winders, 48 ; boxmakers, 12 ; shippers, 3 ; watchmen, 6 ; engineers, 2 ; roll coverer, 1 ; machinists, 7 ; carpenters, 2 ; outside labor, 6.

Worsted.

One cotton manufactory has a worsted department, employing 94 persons. Classification and wages as follows: Overseer, \$5; 2 second hands, \$2; 4 third hands, \$1.33; 8 preparers and combers, \$1.33 to 90 cents; 1 wool washer, \$1.50; 9 drawing, 90 cents; 24 spinning, 75 cents; 11 doffers and bobbin girls, 65 cents; 24 twistors, 90 cents; 6 rulers, 90 cents; 3 sweepers, 66 cents.

Print Works.

These establishments receive the print cloths from the manufactory in the white, and prepare them for market by printing in colors and designs. We give the return of one firm employing 151 persons,—80 men, 15 women, 35 young persons and 21 children. There are ten departments, as follows:—

Calender room,—1 overseer, \$3.25; 30 helpers, \$1.50 to \$1. Drying can room,—1 overseer, \$2.50; 15 helpers, \$1.50 to 50 cents. Machine shop and boiler house,—1 machinist, \$3.50; 10 laborers, \$2 to \$1.50. Dry sheds,—1 overseer, \$2; 16 helpers, \$1.50. Printing machine rooms,—4 printers, \$3.50; 20 helpers, \$1.67 to 50 cents. Color shop,—1 overseer, \$3.50; 6 helpers, \$1.50. Dye house, 1 overseer, \$3.33; 25 helpers, \$1.50 to 87 cents. Bleach house,—1 overseer, \$3.33; 6 helpers, 87 cents. Engraving room,—1 overseer, \$5; 8 helpers, \$2.30. Packing room, 3 packers, \$2.

Hours of labor per week, 60; 8 on Saturday; 60 minutes for dinner.

Details illustrating different phases of factory life as affecting operatives employed in cotton manufacturing will be given further on in the Report. We now pass to the next subdivision.

SUBDIVISION 7. *Furs.*

A blank received gave nothing of very special interest. Reference is made to Class III., page 218, for the necessary information.

SUBDIVISION 8. *Hoop Skirts and Corsets.*

A hoop skirt company in Middlesex County is employing 7 persons,—1 man, 2 women and 4 young persons; have employed 25. Wages, from \$3 to \$1. Hours of labor per week, 58; 8 on Saturday; 60 minutes for dinner. Average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.50.

A corset manufacturer in Worcester County employs 156 persons, all native,—4 men, 149 women and 3 young persons. Classification, wages, etc., as follows:—

Three cutters, from \$3 to \$2.50; 1 shaper, \$2.50; 9 pressers, \$2; 50 stitchers, \$1.50; 90 finishers, \$1; 3 helpers, 87 cents. Hours of labor, 60; board, \$4.50 for men, \$3.50 for women. Length of working season not mentioned.

A hoop skirt manufacturer in Norfolk County, says: "We usually employ about 80 girls and women. When experienced, they earn from \$1.50 to \$1 per day. It takes two months of practice to become expert. Most are Americans, and none employed are less than 14 years of age. About six months of the year we have full work, and the other six we run light."

The Trade in Boston.

Twenty-nine establishments in Boston were visited by our assistant. The following table gives the weekly wages in them:—

HOOP SKIRTS.		CORSETS.		MACHINE OPERATORS.	
No. Employed.	Wages.	No. Employed.	Wages.	No. Employed.	Wages.
179, . .	\$9 00	43, . .	\$10 00	33, . .	\$12 00
168, . .	8 00	24, . .	9 00	18, . .	10 00
93, . .	7 00	47, . .	8 00	19, . .	9 00
124, . .	6 00	60, . .	7 00	12, . .	8 00
140, . .	5 00	56, . .	5 50	24, . .	6 00
139, . .	4 50	39, . .	4 50		
183, . .	3 50				
127, . .	3 00				
112, . .	2 00				

Number employed, 1,640; number weeks' work per year, 30.

Certain remarks on page 211, Subdivision II., while germane to other branches of business, are especially applicable to the manufacture of hoop skirts and corsets.

SUBDIVISION 9. *Hosiery.*

The manufacturing centre of the trade is in Middlesex County. The departments, as given in one report, are weaving, finishing and winding. In a working force of 75, nearly all are foreign-born, mostly English; and, classified by age or sex, include 50 men, 5 women, 15 young persons and 5 children. Earnings per month of men, \$85 to \$25; women, \$40 to \$18; young persons, \$30 to \$15; children, \$10 to \$5. Hours of labor, 50; on Saturday, 8; for dinner, 60 m. Average pay per day, \$1 79. Unable to read and write, 10. Information relating to the wages of knitters and peculiarities of the trade, etc., will be found by reference to the Needham strike, pages 136-169. In the northern part of Worcester County is a hosiery factory, employing from 25 to 30 persons,—one-fourth men and three-fourths women and young persons. Wages in card room, from \$2 to \$1.50; spinning room, piecework, men, \$2.15; knitting room, women and young persons, \$1 to 75 cents; finishing room, \$2.25 to 50 cents. Average earnings per day, \$1.13. Hours of labor, 66; Saturday, 8 $\frac{3}{4}$; dinner time, 45 minutes.

In the same section considerable business is done in the hand-knitting of woollen hose, by women at home. No wages reported.

SUBDIVISION 10. *Rubber and Elastic Goods.*

Six returns received: two relate to elastic fabrics, one to rubber car springs, one to rubber shoes, one to rubber thread and base balls, and one to suspenders.

Whole number employed, 1,265; native 540, foreign 725; men 358, women 439, young persons 257, children 68.

Hours of labor per week, 60; one (rubber shoes) 59, and one (elastic fabrics) 66. Saturdays, one 10, two 9, two 8 $\frac{3}{4}$, and one 8 $\frac{1}{2}$. Dinner time, 60 minutes, one 45 minutes.

In five establishments 37 unable to read and write. Children have their legal schooling.

Board from \$6 to \$4 for men; from \$4.50 to \$2.25 for girls and women.

Wages, for men, from \$4 to \$1.72; women, from \$1.40 to 96 cents; young persons, from \$1.25 to 73 cents; children, from 67 to 50 cents.

Earnings per month, for men, from \$128.19 to \$18; women,

\$42.05 to \$16; young persons, \$49.66 to \$8; children, \$20.50 to \$8.

Average pay per day in three establishments, \$1.05.

In elastic fabrics one company employing 207 persons reports as follows:—

Number of overseers, 6; average wages, \$4; range of earnings for six months, from \$769.17 to \$534.03. Making belting, hose, rubber thread, etc., 64; average wages of men, \$1.75; young persons, \$1.08; children, 68 cents; earnings of men, \$416.25 to \$237.60; young persons, \$157.85 to \$131.70; children, \$91. Weaving and braiding, 101; average wages of men, \$2; women, \$1.25; young persons, \$1; children, 65 cents; earnings of men, \$440.16 to \$273; women, \$244.03 to \$156; young persons, \$220 to \$117; children, \$101.40. Packing and finishing, 19; average wages of women, \$1.17; young persons, \$1; earnings of women, \$252.33 to \$224.16; young persons, \$237.20 to \$125. Dye house, 5; average wages of young persons, \$1.30; earnings, \$298 to \$132.25. Mechanics and miscellaneous, 12; average wages of men, \$2.37; young persons, \$1; earnings of men, \$510.87 to \$278.20; young persons, \$156.

Another company, employing 142 persons, classifies them as follows: 2 machinists, 2 watchmen, 3 overseers, 9 rubber hands, 13 finishers, 18 gusset spoolers, 24 other spoolers, 19 braiders, 29 gusset weavers, 23 other weavers. Wages of men, from \$2.75 to \$1.50; women, \$1 to 95 cents; young persons, 75 to 70 cents; children 50 cents. Earnings per month: of men, \$72 to \$34.25; women, \$29.67 to \$16.50; young persons, \$26.91 to \$14.40. The transcript of a single month's pay roll gave the following:—

OCCUPATION.	Received.	Average per Month.	Average per Day.
29 gusset weavers,	\$1,146 00	\$49 52	\$1 90
23 other weavers,	387 00	16 83	65
18 gusset spoolers,	369 47	20 53	78
24 other spoolers,	375 36	15 64	60
19 braiders,	432 70	22 77	87
13 finishers,	348 00	26 77	1 03

In making car springs and tubing, one company employs 24 men, with wages from \$20 to \$10 per week.

In making rubber shoes, one concern employs 500 persons: 180 men, 230 women, 75 young persons, 15 children. Wages of men, \$3.50 to \$1.75; women, \$2 to \$1; young persons, \$1.75 to 83 cents; children, 83 to 50 cents. No information as to illiteracy or the schooling of children.

A rubber-thread establishment, employing 43 persons, men and boys, reports a subdivision of labor as follows: 1 engraver, 1 fireman, 1 machinist, 1 vulcanizer, 1 watchman, 2 laborers, 3 ball makers, 3 cutters, 3 foremen, 6 grinders, 7 calender hands. Wages from \$4 to 75 cents; earnings per month, from \$125 to \$13. Common labor, \$1.50 per day.

A suspender manufacturing company, employing from 250 to 300 persons, seven-eighths of whom are women, young persons and children, classifies its labor as follows: 1 dyer, 1 fireman, 1 teamster, 1 watchman, 2 carpenters, 5 laborers, 6 cutters, 10 boxmakers, 10 overseers, 12 warpers, 20 quillers, 20 spoolers, 20 stitchers, 40 finishers, 100 weavers. Wages of men, from \$4 to \$1.75; women, \$1.25 to \$1; young persons, \$1.50 to \$1; children, 67 cents. Earnings, per month, of women, \$38.12 to \$20; young persons, \$28.75 to \$13.80; children, \$20.50 to \$15.

A manufacturer of webbing and circingles states that he employs from 15 to 35 persons, according to the season, two-thirds of them girls and women; average wages per week, of men, \$10; women, \$6; highest of men, \$12; women, \$9. Looms and sewing machines are used for machinery.

Additional Statements of Manufacturers.

(1.) Furnish board to men at \$4, and women at \$2.25 per week, washing included. Only 25 avail themselves of the company accommodations now, though nearly all did so at first, when we expended \$10,000 in the construction of a boarding-house. We have 22 tenements, of from six to four rooms, which rent from \$3.50 and \$2.50 a month. Work 66 hours a week; have trouble in getting enough help in the hot season, the girls having homes and thus not being compelled to work steadily. Less than half the employes are foreign; leading foreign element, German. Less than half work by the piece. There have been two reductions in wages, 10 per cent. each, since the war; now 20 per cent. higher than

during the war, when enough was not paid. All are encouraged to write, by being required to sign the pay roll. Pay off on the 20th of each month up to the preceding 1st. Of the 40 men employed, 20 have places of their own; it usually takes nine years to secure one. Have had no trouble with employes for five or six years. Parents co-operate to secure the full term of schooling for children.

(2.) Four-fifths of our employes are girls and women. Their general wage average is \$1 per day. About 150 work by the piece. Most of the stitching on suspenders is done outside at various places within a radius of 25 miles, the work going into three or four hundred families. In this way we spend from \$15,000 to \$20,000 a year. For three months in the year do not run more than a third of the machinery; sometimes there is overtime work. We run ten hours a day; used to run $11\frac{1}{2}$ hours; *think the product a trifle less*. The children are divided into sections, one working while the other attends school. All have good opportunities for education. There is a public library of 30,000 volumes in the place. Interest in it among our employes is great and constantly increasing. Pay day occurs on the 15th of each month, and payments are made up to the preceding 1st. All are required to sign the pay-roll. We are always willing to purchase flour, sugar, tea, fuel, etc., in quantity for employes, charging the purchases to them, on account, at wholesale prices. The opportunity is not very much improved. Last month such purchases amounted to only \$125; the preceding month to \$552. We have now three boarding-houses; formerly had four. A keeper is given a furnished house by the company, and contracts to furnish good board at \$4 for men and \$2.25 for women. If anything is unsatisfactory, employes make complaint at office. We have 37 tenements, which we rent at from \$6 to \$2.50 per month. Part of them are in single houses, and part in blocks of six. About 30 of the men have places purchased by their own or by family labor. We encourage this, and the effects are good. In 15 or 20 cases we have advanced money for starting at six and seven per cent. secured by mortgage. Usually the land is purchased by the men, and then a contract is made with the carpenter, who is paid out of these loans. Our only trouble of much account with employes comes from liquor. Two cases will illustrate. The "super," now 35 years old, in independent circumstances, was once a cotton mill boy; his habits have always been good. Another man, commencing with us at the same time, with equal general advantages, and the superior of the other in natural ability, has been discharged within a few months, very much to our regret, simply because his drinking habits made him

unreliable. These two are the establishments of Messrs. Sawyer, in Easthampton.

SUBDIVISION 11. *Straw and Palm Leaf.*

Number of returns 13, representing 6 counties.

These give the number employed as 6,490, classified as factory and outside workers, the proportion between which, as indicated in 10 returns, is as 445 to 5,295. Nearly all the factory workers and a large share of those outside are native. In 8 returns the proportion of men to women and young persons (girls) in the factory is as 284 to 375. Few or no children are employed.

Hours of labor per week, 60; there are but three exceptions given—one each of 59½, 65 and 70 hours. Saturday hours 10, with two exceptions—one each of 9 and 9½ hours. Dinner time one hour in all cases.

Board for men, from \$6 to \$4 50; women, \$3.75 to \$3.50.

Wages of men, \$4 to \$2; women, \$2 to 62 cents; young persons, \$1.25 to 50 cents.

Earnings per month for men, \$125 to \$35; women, \$65 to \$10; young persons, \$52 to \$8.33.

Average pay per day in six establishments, to each person employed, 70 cents, this estimate being for the first six months of the year 1870.

The subdivision of employments is indicated in one blank as follows: 1 book-keeper and sizer, 2 block-makers, helpers, laborers and machinists, 4 bleachers, 6 packers, 15 blockers, 25 pressers, 90 finishers and 1,000 sewers. Another firm reports 40 sewing-machine hands.

The sewing season is called about six months of the year. In the factory more or less are employed most of the year through. The variation is indicated by one manufacturer as follows: a third work only seven months, another third nine months, and another third eleven months. Another states that his season commences December 1 and ends July 1, followed by work in part of the months of August and September.

Work is carried out to the sewers and brought back by teams of the manufacturers at regular intervals. The earnings of the outside sewers are from \$9 to \$1 a week. One firm paid out, during its last regular year, \$40,000 to 1,000 sewers. Another

manufacturer thinks the average earned by each outside sewer is \$2.75 per week.

The factories are usually pleasantly situated and quite attractive in their surroundings. In some departments the air is hot, close and vitiated by chemicals.

In palm leaf one man employs 4 men, whom he calls splitters, whose earnings are from \$50 to \$40 per month. A manufacturer in Western Massachusetts employs quite a force of girls in factory work ; wages, from \$1.75 to 90 cents ; working hours, 9 per day. Home workers earn from 6 to 8 cents per hour. The work is taken by traders, who give it out in exchange for goods, or is taken around by teams, and paid for in cash.

SUBDIVISION 12. *Woollen.*

Number of blanks sent, 219 ; number returned, 73 ; number tabulated, 42. Number of counties represented, 10.

Woollen factories are well diffused throughout the Commonwealth, but are specially abundant in Berkshire and Worcester counties.

There are fewer incorporated companies than in the cotton business, and fewer establishments conducted on a grand scale as regards the number employed. Our reports give the number as ranging between 1,302 to 6 employés, with an average of 137 to each factory. In the cotton industry the range was between 3,534 and 25, with an average of 470.

The tabulated returns of 42 manufactories are introduced herewith.

TABLE NO. I.—Woolen.—Number of Employes, &c., &c.

No. of Blank.	COUNTY.	EMPLOYES.						HOURS OF LABOR.		PRICE OF BOARD.		Time allowed for dinner, in minutes.	NUMBER WHO CANNOT READ OR WRITE.	
		Total present.	Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Per Week.	Saturday.	Men.	Women.	Native.	Foreign.
1	Berkshire,	144	63	81	76	43	15	10	66	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	\$2 25	\$2 00	-	-
2		149	2	147	63	77	8	1	63	8	3 50	2 50	-	21
3		159	39	120	86	38	16	10	64	9	3 75	2 75	1	7
4		74	35	39	39	2	16	17	65	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	2 75	2	16
5		43	15	28	17	8	14	3	57 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	3 00	2 75	-	1
6		133	8	125	46	10	62	15	66	-	3 50	3 00	-	-
7		135	7	128	80	20	25	10	66	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	4 00	3 00	-	6
8		233	33	200	125	58	30	20	66	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	-	-	-	20
9		275	100	175	125	63	62	25	66	8	3 25	3 00	-	10
10	Bristol,	120	58	62	60	24	23	13	64	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 00	3 50	2	6
11	Essex,	50	25	25	5	25	10	5	66	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	3 00	-	-
12		174	164	10	83	60	-	31	66	10	3 75	3 00	-	-
13		43	39	4	17	10	15	1	60	10	4 50	3 00	-	-
14		100	10	40	38	25	10	27	66	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	-	-	6
15		87	26	61	44	19	18	6	66	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	3 00	-	-
16		200	50	150	90	90	10	10	66	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 25	2 55	-	-
17		123	-	-	60	35	10	18	66	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	-	-	-
18	Hampden,	28	20	8	17	9	2	-	69	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 50	-	-	2
19		97	27	70	35	29	27	4	68 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	3 00	-	18
20	Hampshire,	76	17	59	41	8	15	12	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 00	2 50	-	6

21	Middlesex,	114	37	26	7	6	11	90	66	$9\frac{1}{2}$	\$4 00	\$3 00	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
22		1,618	-	-	510	792	316	-	66	$9\frac{3}{4}$	3 50	2 25	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
23		68	26	42	34	19	9	6	66	$8\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	3 00	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
24		43	-	43	23	14	4	2	$64\frac{1}{2}$	$9\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	3 00	60	-	-	-	-	-	60
25		80	65	15	30	39	8	3	$64\frac{1}{2}$	$9\frac{1}{2}$	4 50	2 25	60	-	-	-	-	-	60
26		82	16	66	38	14	18	12	66	10	3 25	-	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
27	Norfolk, .	25	17	6	6	5	6	8	64	9	4 00	2 75	60	-	-	-	-	-	60
28	Plymouth, .	100	65	35	60	24	16	-	66	$9\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	3 00	60	-	-	-	-	-	60
29	Suffolk, .	135	-	138	116	6	10	3	66	8	-	-	60	-	-	-	-	-	60
30	Worcester,	139	27	112	58	47	5	29	70	10	3 50	2 50	30	-	-	-	-	-	30
31		49	20	29	32	4	8	5	67	$9\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	3 50	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
32		31	9	22	12	8	6	5	66	$9\frac{1}{2}$	4 00	3 50	60	-	-	-	-	-	60
33		510	231	279	192	114	204	-	66	$8\frac{1}{2}$	3 00	2 50	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
34		99	69	30	53	26	20	-	$64\frac{1}{2}$	9	3 25	2 75	60	-	-	-	-	-	60
35		88	8	80	40	20	23	5	66	$9\frac{3}{4}$	3 75	3 25	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
36		90	20	10	58	20	8	4	64	9	3 50	3 00	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
37		86	22	44	29	20	18	19	66	9	3 50	3 00	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
38		65	31	34	26	18	15	6	65	-	3 50	3 00	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
39		67	15	32	38	19	10	-	$65\frac{1}{2}$	$9\frac{1}{4}$	4 00	3 00	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
40		200	10	170	130	16	31	23	58	8	2 80	2 52	60	-	-	-	-	-	60
41		40	11	29	20	12	4	4	68	$9\frac{1}{4}$	5 00	2 50	45	-	-	-	-	-	45
42		40	13	27	20	13	5	2	68	$9\frac{1}{4}$	5 00	2 50	45	-	-	-	-	-	45

TABLE No. I.—Woolen—Continued.—Wages.

No. of Blank.	COUNTRY.	WOOL HOUSE.		DYE HOUSE.		DRY HOUSE.		PICKING ROOM.		CARDING ROOM.					Children.
		Overseer.	Men.	Overseer.	Men.	Overseer.	Men.	Overseer.	Men.	Overseer.	Men.	Women.	Young Per-sons.		
1	Berkshire,	\$2 17	\$1 62	\$4 50	\$1 25	-	-	-	\$1 25	\$3 50	\$1 25	-	\$0 77	-	-
2		3 00	1 87	-	1 50	-	\$2 00	\$1 25	-	3 00	1 25	\$0 70	-	-	-
3		2 50	2 00	3 00	1 33	-	-	1 37	1 00	3 50	1 25	-	65	\$0 50	-
4		2 25	-	2 00	1 25	-	-	-	1 25	1 87	1 25	-	-	-	-
5		-	1 75	1 75	1 25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	72	66	-
6		2 00	1 75	2 75	1 25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7		2 37½	1 62½	3 50	1 25	-	-	-	1 37	5 00	1 37	-	-	-	-
8		3 00	1 87	3 50	1 12½	\$1 25	1 25	1 25	1 25	3 00	1 58	75	1 00	50	-
9		2 55	1 66	3 50	1 31	-	1 25	-	1 31	4 50	1 43	-	-	-	-
10	Bristol,	2 33	2 00	4 00	1 25	-	1 25	-	1 37	3 50	1 75	-	75	87	-
11	Essex,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12		-	1 70	2 00	-	-	1 50	-	1 50	3 50	1 16	-	-	-	-
13		-	-	-	1 47	-	-	-	-	-	1 81	-	-	-	-
14		2 00	1 90	2 25	1 35	-	1 33	-	95	3 00	1 13	-	1 28	-	-
15		-	2 00	2 25	1 50	-	1 25	-	1 20	3 00	-	-	97	55	-
16		2 00	-	3 25	1 25	1 33	1 33	1 33	1 12	3 75	1 45	-	70	60	-
17		2 50	1 75	1 90	1 33	-	-	1 25	-	3 00	1 40	-	-	-	-
18	Hampden,	-	1 50	-	2 00	-	-	-	1 25	-	-	-	-	-	-
19		-	1 43	2 00	1 62	-	-	-	1 25	3 50	1 51	-	92	-	-
20	Hampshire,	2 50	2 00	-	1 25	-	-	-	1 25	2 50	1 50	-	83	-	-

21	Middlesex,	\$3 50	\$2 02	\$4 00	\$1 87	\$3 50	\$1 50	\$2 00	\$1 50	\$3 00	\$1 94	\$0 83	-	-	-	-	-
22		1 80	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
23		-	2 00	-	1 38	-	1 25	-	1 25	3 00	1 50	-	-	-	-	-	-
24		-	2 00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 75	-	\$0 65	-	-	-	-
25		2 00	1 84	3 00	1 50	-	1 50	-	-	2 75	1 62	-	-	-	-	-	\$0 50
26		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2 00	1 60	-	-	-	-	-	-
27	Norfolk, .	-	-	-	1 75	-	-	-	-	-	1 50	-	-	-	-	-	-
28	Plymouth, .	2 00	1 80	4 00	1 50	-	-	-	1 67	-	1 50	-	-	-	-	-	-
29	Suffolk, .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
30	Worcester,	-	-	-	-	-	-	3 00	1 62	3 00	1 62	-	-	93	50	-	50
31		-	2 50	1 60	1 35	-	-	-	1 25	2 50	-	-	-	75	65	-	65
32		1 50	-	1 50	-	-	-	-	1 10	2 50	1 13	-	-	85	50	-	50
33		3 25	1 75	6 73	2 16	-	-	-	-	2 81	1 83	87	-	-	-	-	-
34		2 50	2 00	4 00	1 07	-	-	-	1 50	4 50	1 33	-	-	95	-	-	-
35		-	-	-	1 50	-	-	-	-	3 00	1 50	-	-	-	-	-	66
36		2 75	1 50	3 25	1 34	-	-	-	1 25	3 00	1 33	83	-	-	-	-	67
37		-	-	-	1 50	-	-	-	1 25	3 00	1 16	-	-	-	-	-	-
38		-	-	2 50	1 25	-	-	-	-	3 50	1 72	-	-	-	-	-	-
39		-	1 30	1 75	1 40	-	-	-	1 25	2 75	1 35	-	-	-	-	-	-
40		-	-	-	-	-	-	4 75	2 25	5 50	2 35	-	1 00	-	-	-	-
41		3 00	-	3 00	1 50	1 50	-	-	1 50	2 75	1 50	-	1 00	-	-	-	-
42		3 00	1 50	3 00	1 50	-	-	-	1 62	2 75	1 50	-	-	-	-	-	-

TABLE No. I.—Woolen—Continued.—Wages.

No. of Blank.	COUNTY.	SPINNING ROOM.				DRESSING ROOM.				WEAVING ROOM.			
		Overseer.	Men.	Young Per-sons.	Overseer.	Men.	Young Per-sons.	Children.	Overseer.	Men.	Women.	Young Per-sons.	Children.
1	Berkshire,	-	\$1 75	-	-	-	-	-	\$3 00	\$1 58	\$1 25	\$1 00	\$0 46
2		\$2 00	1 50	-	-	\$1 75	-	-	2 00	1 25	1 00	-	-
3		2 00	1 66	-	\$2 00	1 50	\$0 60	\$0 50	2 75	1 75	1 25	-	-
4		-	1 70	-	-	-	-	-	1 75	-	-	-	46
5		-	1 68	-	-	-	-	-	2 75	-	-	87	-
6		3 00	1 50	-	2 25	1 25	64	64	4 00	1 41	1 40	87	52
7		-	1 87	-	2 62	1 50	62½	50	3 50	1 67	1 88	1 00	50
8		2 00	1 75	\$0 50	-	1 75	-	-	3 50	1 70	97	97	-
9		2 50	1 85	-	-	1 72	-	-	2 75	1 70	1 29	1 12½	75
10	Bristol,	3 50	1 50	1 00	-	3 00	-	67	4 00	2 08	1 62	1 25	-
11	Essex,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12		2 75	1 80	-	-	1 80	-	-	3 50	1 52	-	-	-
13		2 13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14		2 00	1 50	-	-	1 75	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15		2 00	1 66	-	-	1 80	-	-	2 75	1 40	1 28	-	-
16		2 35	-	-	-	2 12	-	-	2 75	1 80	1 33	-	-
17		2 25	1 75	-	1 50	1 50	-	-	2 75	1 61	-	-	-
18	Hampden,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
19		2 50	2 00	1 12	-	1 75	-	-	2 50	1 75	1 25	1 00	62
20	Hampshire,	2 25	1 75	-	-	1 87	-	-	4 00	1 58	1 50	1 25	-

[illegible]

TABLE No. I.—Woolen—Concluded.—Wages, &c.

No. of Blank.	COUNTRY.	FINISHING ROOM.					REPAIR SHOP, ENGINE ROOM, &c.		Total amount of Wages paid from Jan. 1 to July 1, 1870.
		Overseer.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Overseer.	Men.	
1	Berkshire,	\$4 50	\$1 20	\$0 91	\$0 50	-	-	\$1 85	\$25,200 00
2		2 25	1 75	-	50	\$0 50	\$2 00	1 58	30,000 00
3		3 50	1 25	85	67	-	-	1 95	40,000 00
4		3 00	1 42	-	-	46	3 00	1 84	13,230 00
5		2 00	1 34	-	72½	-	-	1 50	11,175 52
6		3 00	1 31	-	57	-	-	1 94	40,000 00
7		-	1 31	95	-	-	-	2 02	24,000 00
8		3 00	1 31	70	-	-	3 00	2 00	48,000 00
9		3 00	1 37	75	75	62	2 75	2 15	25,240 71
10	Bristol,	-	1 90	92	1 25	-	-	2 54	20,008 55
11	Essex,	3 00	-	1 10	-	-	-	-	7,452 79
12		2 00	-	-	-	-	-	1 62	40,000 00
13		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7,510 36
14		1 60	78	-	-	-	2 50	1 36½	16,000 00
15		1 62	1 55	-	-	-	-	1 80	17,305 00
16		3 25	1 53	80	-	-	-	1 07	32,425 00
17		1 85	1 13	-	-	-	-	1 75	40,000 00
18	Hampden,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,050 00
19		2 42	1 66	1 24	1 08	-	-	1 81	18,000 00
20	Hampshire,	2 75	1 24	83	90	-	2 00	1 29	15,942 56

[illegible]

Recapitulation and Remarks.

This table gives totals as follows: Whole number employed, 6,195; ratio of native to foreign, 1,433 to 2,801; men, 2,679; women, 1,909; young persons, 1,143; children, 464.

The hours of labor per week are 66, as a general rule. The exceptions, above and below, are as follows: 70, 69½, 69, 68½, one each; 68, two; 67, 66½, 65½, one each; 65, 64½, four each; 64, five; 63, one; 60, six; 58, 57½, one each,—making forty-nine factories working 66 hours and over, and twenty-three working less than 66 hours per week. The factory running 70 hours a week is situated in West Boylston. Nine of the factories running less than 66 hours are in Worcester County, four in Berkshire, two each in Essex, Hampden, Middlesex and Norfolk, and one each in Bristol and Franklin. The one running on the shortest time is in Hancock, Berkshire County. The 60 hour factories are in Agawam, Canton, Holden, Ipswich, Leicester, Monson and Newbury, with an average working force of about 19 persons each. The average working time of the twenty-three factories alluded to is 62½ hours per week; average number of employes per factory, 53.

The Saturday hours range from 11 to 8, the average being 9¼. The dinner time allowance is 60 minutes in eighteen factories, 55 in one, 45 in forty-six, and 30 in two.

The price of board for men is from \$5 to \$2.25, with an average of \$3.62½; women, from \$3.50 to \$2, with an average of \$2.89.

The illiteracy returns show that in 27 factories 79 native and 348 foreign cannot read or write. One return reports 320 as unable to write. In 21 full returns as to the number of children attending school the legal time, 11 report all as so attending, and the ratio in the 10 others is as 65 to 110, showing that the law is not fully complied with in this branch of industry.

The following statement gives a picture of wages, highest, lowest and average, in each room and class:—

Wool house—overseers \$3.50, \$1.50, \$2.47; men \$2.50, \$1.25, \$1.80; women \$1.10, 87 cents, \$1.07; young persons \$1, 85 cents, 96 cents; children 72 cents.

Dye house,—Overseers \$6 73, \$1.50, \$2.98; men \$2.16, \$1.12, \$1.45; young persons 75 cents.

Dry house—overseers \$3.50, \$1.25, \$1.82; men \$2, \$1, \$1.38; children 58 cents.

Picking room—overseers \$4.75, \$1.25, \$1.93; men \$2 25, 95 cents, \$1.29; young persons \$1.28, 46 cents, \$1.15; children 53 cents.

Carding-room—overseers \$5.50, \$1.15, \$2.69; men \$2.35, 77 cents, \$1.41; women 83 cents, 60 cents, 73 cents; young persons \$1.28, 50 cents, 80 cents; children 67 cents, 46 cents, 58 cents.

Spinning-room—overseers \$3.50, \$1.75, \$2.44; men \$2.75, \$1.10, \$1.61; women 88 cents, 66 cents, 79 cents; young persons \$1.12, 50 cents, 79 cents; children 66 cents, 50 cents, 55 cents.

Dressing-room—overseers \$3.50, \$1.50, \$2.23 $\frac{3}{8}$; men \$3, \$1, \$1.79; women \$1.80, 83 cents, \$1.28; young persons \$1, 60 cents, 63 cents; children 70 cents, 38 cents, 58 cents.

Weaving-room—overseers \$5, \$1.75, \$2.89; men \$2.67, 87 cents, \$1.60; women \$2, 77 cents, \$1.19; young persons \$1.25, 67 cents, \$1.01; children 75 cents, 38 cents, 55 cents.

Finishing-room—overseers \$4.50, \$1.50, \$2.63; men \$2, 78 cents, \$1.47; women \$1.50, 42 cents, 88 cents; young persons \$1.25, 50 cents, 80 cents; children 75 cents, 46 cents, 58 cents.

Repair-shop, engine-room and miscellaneous—overseers \$4, \$1.62, \$2.77; men \$2.83, \$1.07, \$1.84; women \$1.90, 75 cents, \$1.32; young persons 62 cents; children 76 cents, 41 cents, 58 cents.

Average wages—of overseers (taking all classes together), \$2.48 $\frac{1}{2}$ per day; of men, \$1.56 $\frac{1}{2}$ per day; of women, \$1.04 per day; young persons, 83 $\frac{1}{3}$ cents per day; children, 58 $\frac{1}{3}$ cents per day.

Average amount per day paid to each person employed, \$1.20 $\frac{1}{2}$, as shown by the pay-roll returns of 73 manufactories.

Materials for a full statement as to the absolute earnings of employes for a term of six months are not abundant in the reports sent in. A firm in Eastern Massachusetts renders this statement: earnings of men, from \$1,200 to \$390; women, \$561.18 to \$287.04; young persons, \$438 to \$206; children \$234 to \$156. Another, in the western part of the State, reports as follows: earnings of men, \$500 to \$245; women, \$180 to \$126; young persons, \$140 to \$120. A third, in Worcester

County, makes this exhibit: earnings of men, \$497 to \$113; women, \$192 to \$120; young persons, \$153 to \$120; children, \$85. These three concerns may be regarded as representative.

A mill for the manufacture of woollen yarn, employing 30 persons, gives the earnings of its men, per month, as from \$72 to \$30; women, \$24 to \$16; young persons, \$24 to \$20.

The drought of the last season has seriously affected the running and the production of many factories, both woollen and cotton. Quite a number, also, have not been running for a year or two, on account of a depression in the business, and some have run a good deal on three-quarters time. Many do a moderate but profitable business in the production of an article of superior excellence, for which the demand is comparatively limited. One small factory works altogether upon goods designed for the uniforms of convicts.

Strikes have occurred in Holyoke and in South Adams. Neither were of long duration. The weavers in one of the Holyoke mills asked an advance of one cent per yard, and after being out an hour or so, the increase was given. The overseer of the room having made himself objectionable by putting into execution a threat to make the men lose by fines all they had gained by the advance, they again struck against the overseer, refusing to work under him. The mill stopped a week, changed owners and went on at the advanced rates and overtime work. The weavers of another mill in town struck for an advance at the same time with the others, but failed to get it, and the supposed leaders were discharged with the statement that under no condition would they be again employed. In South Adams the employés of one factory struck against a reduction of ten per cent. After staying out a week they went back at the old rates. In a neighboring factory a similar strike against the same reduction was unsuccessful.

So far as manufacturers have reported in the matter, they give the lost time of the operatives, on their own account, as a day in every month. One agent spoke of many having to stop out from exhaustion occasionally; also, of some as being out for a week at a time from sickness,—and for this reason favored fewer hours of labor. Generally, however, the manufacturers expressed themselves to the assistants as bitterly opposed to the idea of a reduction.

The statements of two manufacturers in different parts of Berkshire County concerning their operatives, may be of interest :

(1.) We have 36 tenement houses, many of them new, which we rent for from \$12.50 to \$2.50 per month; mainly double houses; some three stories high; highest number of families in a house, five; all painted lead color; tolerably neat, roomy and convenient,—but would have been more so if they had all been built at the same time, or upon a carefully prepared plan. The operatives are mostly of foreign birth, and in this order—Welsh, Irish, French and German. Don't specially aid or encourage the purchase of independent places near the mills; many get ahead, however, so far as to go out and buy a farm, or go into some kind of business. Emigration keeps up the factory race. Pay off on the 15th of every month up to the preceding 1st. Credit is given at store near the mill, and amount deducted on pay-day. None of the operatives own shares in the corporation. The superintendent conducts a Sunday school for the benefit of the operatives; average attendance, 55. Effort is made there to carefully instruct the children, commencing at the alphabet, when necessary. The children have about 14 weeks of day schooling per year. Most of the factory parents take an interest in the matter; a few do not; they wish the young children to work as much as possible. The other day a Welshman came and said he wanted a place in the factory for his child, as his work would pay the meat bill. Told him the child must go to school, and sent him away; in a few weeks he came again with the same story. Four of the ten children at work cannot read or write. Our men, as sorters, average \$1.62; washers and dyers, \$1.25; second hands, \$1.50; card-strippers, \$1.25; spinners, \$1.75; giggers, \$1; fullers and press tenders, \$1.50, per day. They earn from \$58.50 to \$26 per month; women and young persons earn from \$24 to \$13 per month. Hours per week, 66.

(2.) The mill is all owned in one family. Make cassimeres, and run steadily the year round. Have 211 employés, mostly foreign—Irish, German and English. Twenty of them cannot read or write. Make an inspection of the rooms every term, and send out all the children that have not had the legal amount of schooling. Pay on 15th to preceding 1st of every month. Sometimes buy coal, wood, flour and meat for workmen, but never if the traders of the town are reasonable in their charges. The company tenements bring in nine per cent. on their value. Only 25 families live in company houses; the rest rent of others or are owners. Over 50 own houses or lots. Some of their houses are a credit to the place in

their exterior appearance and yard surroundings. Many have money at interest—almost every one has, that has been ten years at work. One man, whose wages most of the time were only \$17 a month, is now owner of real estate valued at \$6,000. A woman who has worked 25 years as a weaver has \$1,500 at interest, and owns real estate valued at \$3,000. There is a good deal of difference among them in habits of saving. One man commenced work in 1837 and is now worth \$15,000; another has worked 33 years and is not worth a dollar, though perfectly temperate. One of our operatives, whose most common rate of wage was \$17 a month, had at one time \$2,000 in the office to his account. The Irish are especially given to saving money and investing in real estate. We encourage these habits all we can. One of our operatives went back to Ireland after having worked with us a term of years, and took with him \$8,000, with which he bought a farm there and settled down. There are some in the factory who have worked for us more than 20 years. Some years our manufacturing gives us 10 per cent. on the investment, sometimes nothing. We regard the business as healthy. Our relations with employés are pleasant and satisfactory. Have very little trouble with intemperance. Our men, as sorters, average \$1.75 per day; washers and dyers, \$1.12½; dryers, \$1.25; picker tenders, \$1.25; card strippers, \$1.25; spinners, \$1.75; warpers, \$1.75; loom-fixers, \$2; weavers, \$1.15; fullers, giggers and dryers, \$1.25; shearers, \$1.37½; press tenders, \$1.25; laborers and teamsters, \$1.50. Women earn from \$1.15 to 70 cents per day, and young persons from \$1 to 50 cents. Spinners earn, per month, from \$50 to \$39, and weavers from \$45 to \$15. Hours per week, 66.

DIVISION II.—CHEMICALS, ETC.

SUBDIVISION 1.—*Candles and Soap.*

One incomplete return. A firm in Middlesex County pays its tallow chandlers (men) an average of \$11.57 per week. Hours of labor, 66.

SUBDIVISION 2.—*Chemical Preparations, etc.*

Number employed in five establishments 155,—70 native, 85 foreign; four of the five are corporations; four counties are represented.

One firm reports two classes of labor, mechanics and helpers, the former averaging \$2.62½ and the latter 75 cents per day. Hours of labor, 60.

Another reports a head overseer, two employed at concentrating vitriol, two at tending kilns, and three at general work, with average wages at \$5, \$2.50, \$2 and \$1.84 per day. A part of the force work 72, and another part 84 hours per week. Six of the employés can neither read nor write.

A third report gives the average wages of 18 persons as \$1.88½, the monthly earnings being from \$65 to \$39. Seven cannot read or write. Hours of labor, 60.

A laboratory company gives its wage average as \$1.65, with monthly earnings from \$91 to \$39. Hours of labor, 50 in winter, 55½ in summer. Of the working force of 43, all are native but one.

A dyewood and chemical company reports seven mechanics and four head workmen at \$2.75, and forty-five laborers at \$1.87½ per day. The earnings per month are from \$120 to \$50. Hours of running, including nights, 120; 16 on Saturdays.

SUBDIVISION 3.—*Gas.*

Three returns from Suffolk County, where the largest business is done.

The Roxbury Gas Light Co. gives its average wages as \$2. Hours of labor, 84.

The South Boston Gas Light Co. employs 46 persons, of whom 5 only are native. The classification is as follows: agent, superintendent and treasurer, one each; collectors, two; meter men, three; firemen, sixteen; laborers, twenty-two, thirteen having work only from March to December. Wages from \$6.20 to \$1.75, and earnings per month from \$183.33 to \$47.25. Hours of labor, 54 for meter men and laborers, and 77 for firemen. Cannot read and write, 24.

The Boston Gas Light Co., with a capital invested of \$1,250,000, employs from 550 to 560 persons, the number varying in many of the classes with the season. Hours of labor in most cases, 54. The following table shows the subdivision of labor and wages. It is the largest gas corporation in the State:—

TABLE.—*Gas.*

OCCUPATION.	NO. PERSONS IN SEASON.		Average Wages per Day.
	January 1.	July 1.	
Foremen,	2	2	\$2 62
Overseers,	11	11	2 56
Firemen,	74	54	2 40
Second Men,	74	54	2 20
Drawing Men,	26	18	2 20
Barrow Men,	38	28	2 20
Barrow Pushers,	18	14	1 75
Coal Wheelers,	26	18	1 75
Coke Drawers,	39	27	1 75
Yard Men,	33	30	1 75
Service Men,	17	19	1 87
Engineers,	7	12	2 40
Tar Men,	2	2	2 10
Blacksmiths,	11	11	2 25
Machinists,	7	9	2 20
Masons and helpers, outside,	2	26	2 50
“ “ inside,	14	14	2 00
Carpenters,	12	23	2 50
Wharfinger,	1	1	3 29
Weigher,	1	1	2 74
Watchmen,	7	6	1 75
Coal and Coke Trimmers,	41	64	1 75
Officers,	2	2	6 60
Groom, &c.,	1	1	2 25
Pipe Layers,	29	39	1 87
Supply Men,	20	22	1 87
Jobbers,	23	21	2 25
Meter Repairers,	2	2	2 50
Clerks,	11	11	—
Collectors,	7	7	—
Draughtsmen,	2	2	—

SUBDIVISION 4.—*Leads, Paints, Varnish.*

A lead company in Essex County, employing 34 persons, gives highest wages as \$3 ; lowest, \$1.10 ; average, \$2. Hours of labor, 53 ; 8 on Saturday. Number unable to read and write, 13. A little over half foreign born.

A paint manufacturer in Suffolk County employs 12 men, at average wages of \$2 per day ; highest and lowest per week, \$18 and \$11 ; young persons, \$7 to \$5. Hours of labor, 60.

A company in Western Massachusetts making paints and chemicals, employs 20 persons, classified as follows : chemist, engineer, fireman, solderer, watchman, one each ; boys and grinders, 2 each ; packers, 3 ; color makers and pressmen, 4

each. All but 3 are paid less than \$2 per day; the 3 receive \$6.40, \$3 and \$2.25. Native and foreign about equal; 4 unable to read and write; hours of labor, 60. Five colored men employed as grinders and packers, paid weekly, the others monthly; give good satisfaction, having been employed four or five years.

A varnish manufacturer in Middlesex County employs 7 persons; 1 teamster and 1 shipping clerk, 2 varnish makers, and 3 laborers. Wages per month, \$141.66 to \$44. Hours of labor, 57; 7 on Saturdays. Not able to read and write, 2.

SUBDIVISION 5.—*Matches.*

One company returns 23 persons employed, all but 5 native born. Wages per month, highest, \$91; lowest, \$26; average, \$50. Hours of labor, 60. All can read and write but 1.

SUBDIVISION 6.—*Medicine and Perfumery.*

A manufacturer of patent medicine in Boston pays his men \$15, women, \$6.50, and young persons, \$5 per week. Two weeks' vacation given without reduction in pay. Hours of labor, 50.

A merchant in the wholesale business pays his clerks from \$5 to \$3 per day. Hours of labor, 48.

A manufacturer of extracts and perfumery gives employ to 2 men as packers, 3 boys as bottle-washers, and 10 girls as bottlers. The men average \$11, the girls \$7, and the young persons \$6 per week. Hours of labor, 60. Employment regular, except the loss of one month in the year by the girls.

SUBDIVISION 7.—*Oils and Dressings.*

A manufacturer of lubricating oils in Essex County employs 10 persons at monthly wages of \$100, \$54 and \$60, highest, lowest and average. Hours of labor, 77 $\frac{2}{5}$; unable to read and write, 7.

One manufacturer in Middlesex County pays his engineer \$3.20 and his laborers \$2.47; hours of labor, 60; employment regular. Another employs 42 persons in the manufacture of linseed oil, at an average pay of \$2.

A company in Suffolk County employs 16 persons, as follows: superintendent, \$6.50; engineer, \$3; head cooper, \$2.75; 3 coopers, \$2.25; 2 stillmen, \$2.25; 5 laborers \$2; 1 watchman,

\$2; 2 boys, \$1.50 per day. Hours of labor, 60; 3 work 84 hours. Working season 44 weeks per year. Another company that turns out petroleum products, employs 100 persons, 10 of whom are boys from 14 to 16 years of age. The average wages of men are \$2; young persons, \$1. Hours of labor, 60. The works do not stop the year round, but some of the employés are away during a portion of the hot season. Most of the men have families. An oil merchant pays his employés \$60 a month; hours of labor, 55.

Two returns are given for shoe and leather dressings, both in Suffolk County. One reports 3 employés at an average of \$10.40 per week; highest per month, \$60; lowest, \$24; hours of labor, 46. The other employs 7, 4 men and 3 women; the men earning from \$3 to \$2.50, and the women from \$1.50 to 75 cents. Hours of labor, 60.

A stove polish manufacturer in Norfolk County employs 9 persons, all but 2 being women, and classified as moulders, wrappers, boxers and helpers. Both men and women earn from \$2.25 to \$1.25, pay being given by the piece or amount done. The payroll averages \$1.54 to each person. Hours of labor, 60.

SUBDIVISION 8.—*Powder and Cartridges.*

The leading powder company of the State employs 25 men, at wages from \$4 to \$1.75; average, \$2.50. All native but 3; all can read and write. Hours of labor, 60; time for dinner, 45 minutes.

A cartridge company in Middlesex County employs 30 persons, 10 men, 8 women and 12 young persons; the men earning \$3, \$1.75 and \$1; the women 90 and 95 cents, and the young persons 75 cents. The classification is given as 1 loader, 2 workmen, 6 machinists, 6 miscellaneous and 15 machine-tenders. The monthly earnings of men are from \$91 to \$26; women and young persons, from \$26 to \$13. Hours of labor, 60.

Another firm, manufacturing metallic cartridges in Western Massachusetts, employs 41 persons; 11 men, 21 women, 9 young persons. The men earn from \$4 to \$1.50, average, \$2.50; the women and young persons from \$1.25 to \$1. Highest earnings per month of women, \$47; lowest, \$25. Of the men 3 are machinists at \$3.50 per day; the rest have no trades. Hours of labor, 60. All can read and write, and most live at their own homes. Each cartridge passes through about a dozen

processes, such as cutting off, heading, priming, loading, fastening in, packing, lubricating, pasting, etc. Several machines are used. No accidents have occurred.

DIVISION III.—FOOD, DRINK, ETC.

SUBDIVISION I.—*Bacon, Lard, etc.*

A pork packer in Boston hires 20 men at wages from \$28.85 to \$10 per week, and a boy at \$5 per week. Hours of labor, 60; 15 on Saturday. More business seems to be done at slaughtering and packing and rendering pork products in Somerville than in any other town.

One concern employs 57 persons at an average of \$2.40; the range being from \$4.17 to 67 cents. Hours of labor, 60. Another employs 12 in making lard, tallow and sausages; the working force of the establishment consisting of an engineer, a teamster, a bookkeeper, two peddlers, two lard and tallow workers, and five sausage-makers. Earnings per month from \$85 to \$40. Hours of labor, 60. An establishment employing 58 men gives the following information:—

TABLE NO. I.—*Pork Works.*

No. of persons in each class.	OCCUPATION.	Average Wages per week.	EARNINGS PER WEEK.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
22	Butchers,	\$11 78	\$18 00	\$5 00
3	Cutters,	14 50	20 00	12 00
4	Lard Renderers,	16 50	25 00	12 00
8	Meat Curers,	12 44	18 00	11 00
5	Packers,	12 40	20 00	10 00
1	Engineer,	15 00	—	—
1	Watchman,	15 00	—	—
7	Coopers,	16 29	20 00	13 00
4	Teamsters,	11 75	14 00	6 00
1	Clerk,	10 00	—	—
2	Laborers,	12 50	15 00	10 00

SUBDIVISION 2.—*Bakers and Confectioners.*

The wages of men in these trades, outside of Boston, are given in the table of miscellaneous employments.

In Boston the wages of bakers are reported as about \$16 a week. The women employed sell at the counter, and receive from \$8 to \$4.50 a week. From 3 to 1 will be employed at each bakery. Partial board included in both cases. Hours of labor, 60, 72 and 75.

A cracker baker reports 14 employed; 6 men, 6 women, and 2 young persons. Wages of men, \$3 to \$2; women, \$1.50; young persons, \$1.50 to \$1.25. The men work by the day; the others by the piece. Board is not included. Earnings for six months: men, \$468 to \$312; women, \$207 to \$151; young persons, \$149 to \$132. Average to each for six months, \$1.60 per day. Hours of labor, 48.

Confectioneries in Boston are classed as wholesale and retail, the latter class having ice-cream saloons attached, and doing also considerable business in the pastry line. A wholesale confectioner, employing 12 persons, divided equally among men, women and young persons, gives the wages per week for men as \$25 to \$12; women, \$6 to \$5, and young persons from \$10 to \$4. Hours of labor, 60. Generally women are employed packing and sorting, with wages from \$6 to \$3 a week. Steady work is usually given, though in about 6 weeks of the hottest weather business is suspended, except in the sales department. In retail places the number employed is from 24 to 7, and the wages paid are from \$15 to \$2.50 per week. The classification and wages per week in the largest establishment visited was found as follows: 1 overseer, \$15; 1 pastry cook, \$9; 2 counter girls, \$8; 3 waiters, \$4.50; 4 waiters, \$3.50; 3 waiters, \$3; 4 waiters, \$2.75; 4 kitchen girls, \$3; in all cases board included. This statement may be regarded in the matter of wages as representative of all first-class retail confectioneries.

SUBDIVISION 3.—*Breweries and Distilleries.*

Most of the returns are from Suffolk County. A beer company reports a clerk and engineer employed at \$3 and \$2.75; 3 teamsters at \$2.25; 4 coopers at \$2.50; and 31 laborers at \$1.75. The coopers earn from \$71.50 to \$50, and the laborers from \$60 to \$45 a month. Three tenements leased to work-

men at \$5 per month. Wages continued if men disabled by accident or sickness. Hours of labor, 60. One brewery employs 23 men at the average pay of \$2 a day ; another 50 men at an average of \$2.33 ; a third, 2 men, 1 at \$75 and the other \$50 a month. A brewery employing 31 men gives classification and earnings for six months as follows : brewer, \$1,000 ; engineer, \$500 ; 3 clerks \$533 each ; 4 teamsters, \$364 each ; 5 maltsters, \$312.80 each ; 11 laborers, \$290.40 each. Hours of labor, 60 ; unable to read and write, 6.

A gin and brandy distillery in Western Massachusetts, which has lost but eight months' time in 25 years, reports wages as \$3, \$2 and \$2.50, highest, lowest and average. Hours of labor, 72. A cider-brandy distillery in the same section runs but one month in the year, the owner doing all his own work.

SUBDIVISION 4.—*Butchers.*

Wages are given to some extent in table of miscellaneous employments. A firm in Brighton employs 11 men at from \$3 to \$2 per day. Hours of labor, 83 ; on Saturday, 18. Another firm in Essex County employs 6 men at from \$70 to \$40 per month,—one butcher, one hostler, two clerks and two market men. Hours of labor irregular.

SUBDIVISION 5.—*Cheese.*

Two cheese factories in Worcester County employ, one 3 and the other 5 persons. Wages per month, from \$125 to \$30. Seven days' work per week ; hours of labor, 84.

SUBDIVISION 6.—*Chocolate.*

Two mills employ 45 persons,—15 men, 12 women, 16 young persons, 2 children. Wages—of men, \$2.50 and \$2 ; women, 90 and 87 cents ; young persons and children, 67 cents. Earnings per month—of men, \$63.60 to \$36 ; women, \$25 to \$20 ; young persons, \$20 to \$12. Hours of labor, 63 and 59. On account of the heat there is no work done in the four summer months ; the men then work out, and the girls take their vacation.

SUBDIVISION 7.—*Fishmongers.*

A firm engaged in curing and smoking fish employs 6 men at \$12 a week. Working season, 9 months ; hours of labor, 60.

Another company in the lobster business pays its men \$17.50 per week the year round. Hours of labor, 72.

SUBDIVISION 8.—*Flour.*

A mill and elevator company in Middlesex County employ 15 men at a general average of \$3 per day, the monthly earnings being from \$100 to \$50. The force consists of clerks, engineers, firemen, laborers and millers. Hours of labor, 60. A firm in Western Massachusetts employs two millers, one at \$50 the other at \$40 a month. Hours of labor, 60 to 72, according to demand. Another, ten men at \$48 and \$52; 10 hours a day for nine months, and 12 hours for three months. Further information in miscellaneous employment table.

SUBDIVISION 9.—*Ice.*

A gentleman engaged in business as a packer and dealer, employs from 50 to 500 persons, the men receiving \$2 a day. Hours of labor per day, 8. Employs the same hands for farm work at from \$50 to \$20 a month and board. Also many women and children in summer at berry-picking.

SUBDIVISION 10.—*Preserves and Pickles.*

A manufacturer of condensed milk employs an agent, an engineer, a tinner, a second hand, a woman and five laborers. The latter earn from \$39 to \$26; the other men from \$75 to \$65: the woman \$21. Hours of labor, 48.

A pickle factory employs 38,—23 men, 10 women and 5 young persons. Average wages—of men, \$2.50; women and young persons, 75 cents. Hours of labor, 60. In another factory, employing 12 women during the packing season of 18 weeks, experienced persons will earn from \$18 to \$10 a week, and others from \$10 to \$7.

SUBDIVISION 11.—*Spices and Coffee.*

One firm employs 30 persons,—20 men, 6 women and 4 young persons. Wages of men, \$2.50 to \$2; women and young persons (employed in packing), \$1. The men are classified as follows: an engineer, a pressman, a watchman, a coffee roaster, two spice packers, two teamsters, three spice millers, four mustard men and five laborers. Earnings of men, for six months, \$400 to \$260; women, \$195 to \$130; and young persons, \$150 to \$125. Hours of labor, 60.

SUBDIVISION 12.—*Sugar.*

This business is centred in Boston and its immediate vicinity. A refinery employing 56 persons,—52 men and 4 young persons—gives the wages of its men as \$1.50, and young persons as \$1 per day. All are designated as melters, charrburners and machine tenders. Native and foreign are as 12 to 44. Hours of labor, 60; Saturday, 8. Another refinery, employing 93 men, gives wages from \$5 to \$1, and pays two boys 50 cents a day. Average per month, \$50. Hours of labor, 59; Saturday, 9. A third company employs 113 persons, only 3 of them young persons. The boys earn from \$30 to \$9 a month; the men from \$150 to \$40. Wages of men range between \$4.80 and \$1.60 per day. The average, per pay-roll, would be \$2.28; but all but 17 receive less than that amount, 80 being paid less than \$2. Hours of labor, 60.

SUBDIVISION 13.—*Tobacco.*

The returns under this head represent both Eastern and Western Massachusetts. A cigar manufacturer in Boston reports 5 men and 4 women employed, all working by the piece, the men earning from \$3 to \$2.50, and the women from \$1.67 to \$1. Hours of labor, optional, perhaps 50; Saturday, 8. Another firm, engaged in tobacco manufacture, as well as cigar making, employs 17 men and 33 women. Hours of labor, 53; Saturday, 8. Other information tabulated as follows:—

TABLE No. I.

Number.	OCCUPATION.	Sex.	Wages.	Average Earnings in Six Months.
11	Cigar Makers, .	Men, .	\$12 00 per M, .	\$372 70
15	Cigar Makers, .	Women, .	9 00 “ .	194 00
14	Strippers, . .	Women, .	75 per day, .	117 00
4	Packers, . . .	Women, .	1 00 “	156 00
3	Cutters, . . .	Men, .	2 00 “	312 00
3	Foremen, . . .	Men, .	3 00 “	468 00

The cigar business is a thriving one in Western Massachusetts, and the town of Westfield has two or three prosperous coöperative societies. A firm employing 50 persons, classes them and gives wages and earnings as follows :—

TABLE No. II.

Number	OCCUPATION.	Average Day Wages.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.		Piece Rates.
			Highest.	Lowest.	
30	Cigar Makers, .	\$3 00	\$150 00	\$50 00	\$15 to \$7 per M.
15	Strippers (girls), .	1 20	50 00	20 00	4 cents per lb.
2	Packers, . .	3 50	104 00	80 00	70 cents per lb.
3	Apprentices, . .	50	13 00	—	— —

Hours of labor, 60 ; Saturday, 8. Four-fifths of employés foreign,—German, Irish and Spanish. Employment sedentary. One of the partners makes these statements: “ Many of the men, working 8 hours a day, will earn \$20 a week. In longer time have known \$38 to be made. Apprentices serve three years ; the first year they are paid \$3 a week, the second and third years they go to the table, and have all they can earn over a certain amount of work. The men are governed strictly by the rules of their organization. There are both good and poor things about its management, but we have no trouble and don’t intend to have. If we can’t make money on the union prices we shall go out of business ; don’t believe in cutting down. The union does not interfere with the discharge of union men for cause. There is good feeling here towards the coöperators. The men will not work in a room with women. The last strike here was on account of infringement of this rule by a manufacturer. Cigar makers, as a class, are rather rough in their style.”

An employer in Springfield reports the wages of cigar makers, per week, as \$30, \$15 and \$22,—highest, lowest and average. The girls, as strippers, average \$8 a week. Another manufacturer, in a village, says his men earn from \$22 to \$15 in six ten-hour days.

SUBDIVISION 14.—*Vinegar.*

A vinegar manufacturer in Boston employs 3 men, at an average of \$2 per day. Hours of labor, 100; Saturday, 9. A manufacturer in Middlesex County employs 14 men at from \$75 to \$36 per month, classified as clerks, collectors, salesmen, foremen, carpenters, coopers, laborers, teamsters and watchmen. Hours of labor, 60.

DIVISION IV.—MINERAL SUBSTANCES.

Number of returns, 42.

Number employed, 1,609; native 637, foreign 972; 834 men, 139 young persons.

Hours of labor per week in these establishments are as follows: In one, 50; in three, 54; in four, 59; in twenty-three, 60; in two, 63; in three, 66; in three others, 70, 72 and 78. Hours on Saturday vary from 8 to 13, nine working less than 10 and four over 10. Time for dinner, from 30 to 60 minutes, all but three being 60.

Unable to read and write, 208.

Earnings, per week, men—\$30 to \$6; young persons—\$9 to \$2; per month, men—\$220 to \$15, young persons, \$30.33 to \$8.50.

SUBDIVISION 1.—*Brick.*

In Suffolk County a man employing 7 men pays an average of \$30 a month, the highest and lowest being \$65 and \$25. Hours of labor, 72. A manufacturer of fire-brick employs 13 men, for a season of 50 weeks, and pays an average per day of \$2.35; hours of labor, 59.

A company in Bristol County, for seven months in the year employs 57 men, 4 superintendents, at from \$110 to \$90, and 53 laborers at from \$75 to \$39 a month. The season lasts from April 15 to November 15. During the rest of the year 15 men are employed at general labor, at an average of \$1.83 per day of eight hours. More than half are native; 12 cannot read or write.

A brick company in Middlesex County employs, at the highest, 170 persons, 20 of them young persons, at \$1; and the rest, men, most of them, at \$1.40 a day; 10 clerks and burners average \$4.50 per day. Earnings, for six months, of laborers—\$250 to

\$200 ; young persons, \$181 to \$130. Hours of labor, from sunrise to sunset, with 75 minutes for meals. Most of the laborers are French Canadians, who work the brick-makers' season and then return home, their wages being mostly paid in gold. Number that cannot read or write, 150.

A brick-maker in Worcester County employs 7 men during the six months from May 1 to November 1, at \$50 per month ; hours of labor, 63.

A firm in Hampden County employs 24 men, all but 2 being foreign : one foreman, \$5 ; two setters, \$3 and \$2.50 ; two moulders, \$2.50 ; two teamsters, \$2 ; seventeen laborers, \$2 to \$1.50. Hours of labor, 66. Pays for overtime at regular rate. The season covers seven months, five in manufacturing and two in preparing. The moulding machine used improves the quality of work, but does not diminish the amount of hand labor. As many men are required as before, but cheaper men can now be used. Pays on the 20th up to the preceding 1st of every month.

At a small yard in Franklin County two brick and tile makers were working for \$80 and \$55 a month. A stout young fellow was also working for his board and clothes.

At a yard in Berkshire County the owner puts the work out by contract : 14 men employed at an average of \$30 a month ; season, from May 1 to September 15 ; amount of money made by contractor in five months, nearly \$1,300 ; hours of labor, 66. Another, in the same section, hires 20 men, at an average of \$1.42 per day ; season, seven months ; hours of labor, 66.

Stove Lining.

Two stove lining returns may be included in this subdivision. A company employing 40 men classifies them as follows : 5 moulders, 4 carriers, 7 finishers, 1 dryer, 2 setters, 1 burner, 3 packers, 2 teamsters, 1 engineer and 12 men at general work. Wages per day, \$2.75 to \$1 ; earnings per month, \$100 to \$25. Hours of labor, 60 ; Saturday, 8½. The second return, with a similar classification, gives the average wages as \$2, and the monthly earnings as from \$80 to \$25. Hours of labor, 60.

SUBDIVISION 2.—*Bone.*

Information scanty. Wages at \$35 a month.

SUBDIVISION 3.—*Earthen and Stone Ware.*

The only pottery in New England producing crockery ware is in Suffolk County. Number employed, 28; men, 17; women, 4; young persons, 7. The wages are given as follows, highest, lowest and average: Potters—men, \$3.50, \$2, \$2.97; women, \$1.33, 66 cents, 92 cents; young persons, \$1, 50 cents, 55 cents. Kiln men—\$3.25, \$2.48, \$2.35. Warehouse—\$3, 66 cents, \$2. Hours of labor, 60; 4 cannot read or write.

A pottery in Worcester County employs 7 men: three turners, \$88 to \$32 (piece work); one burner, \$96; one clay grinder, \$40; two drivers, \$35 a month. The grinder loses one day a week. The work is steady; all well educated; hours of labor, 60.

A firm in Bristol County, which employs 4 potters and 2 laborers, pays the former from \$77.96 to \$50.43, and the latter from \$32.63 to \$30.79 per month. Hours of labor, 60. At other works in the same county, 25 are employed in the manufacture of pottery, and 15 in making fire brick. Wages per month from \$100 to \$25. Hours of labor, 60.

A manufacturer of flower-pots and other ware, pays 2 turners \$65, 2 apprentices \$26, and 2 helpers \$50 per month.

A drain-pipe company in Western Massachusetts employs 10 men, and pays from \$80 to \$50 a month. Hours of labor, 78. Another, in Middlesex County, employs 16 persons at from \$75 to \$15 a month, the average being \$1.87 per day. Employés classified as follows: one connection maker, two teamsters, five machine hands, eight kiln hands. Hours of labor, 60.

A crucible maker employs 14 men and a boy; wages of men, \$3 to \$1.50; boy, 62½ cents. Hours of labor, 59 in summer and 50 in winter. Months of work per year not given for any of the above.

SUBDIVISION 4.—*Glass.*

The returns represent the counties of Berkshire, Bristol, Middlesex and Suffolk.

The classification of employés includes blowers, cutters, box, mould and pot makers, overseers and apprentices, packers, engineers and firemen, blacksmiths and machinists, laborers, teamsters, clerks, etc. The hours of labor of these classes are reported by one establishment to be—44 for clerks, 60 for blow-

ers, apprentices and teamsters, 84 for firemen, and 59 for the rest.

A company employing 69 persons gives the wages of men as from \$7 to \$1.50; young persons, \$1 to 75 cents, and children 75 to 50 cents per day.

Another company, employing 150 persons, reports as follows: 40 men are engaged in glass making at wages from \$5 to \$2.50, and 43 boys at from 88 to 62 cents; 10 men are employed at glass cutting, and receive \$3; 5 boys, at roughing and cutting glass, receive from \$1.33 to 58 cents; 3 mould makers (men) earn from \$4 to \$3; 13 girls, employed at cleaning moulds, papering ware and cementing lamps, receive from 83 to 67 cents; 36 men at general labor, tending fires, packing, etc., earn from \$2 to \$1. Hours of labor of glass makers, 40; the rest work 60 hours.

A private establishment makes this return:—

Number in each Class.	O C C U P A T I O N .	Average Wages per Month.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
2	Founders, . . .	\$110 00	\$130 00	\$100 00
5	Shearers, . . .	60 00	60 00	60 00
20	Blowers, . . .	110 00	220 00	75 00
20	Gatherers, . . .	65 00	70 00	60 00
4	Flatteners, . . .	120 00	160 00	100 00
6	Cutters, . . .	120 00	200 00	75 00
2	Pot-Makers, . . .	65 00	65 00	65 00
40	Laborers, . . .	40 00	50 00	35 00

Hours of labor, 60; 20 cannot read or write; 80 are of foreign birth. Works suspended from May 1 to August 1, because of a strike, preceded by a reduction in the wages of skilled workmen.

A company manufacturing lamps, cut and decorated goods, and employing 170 persons, has 6 foremen that are paid per week from \$50 to \$24; 88 glass makers, from \$40 to \$5; 10

decorators, \$40 to \$4; 8 selectors, \$8 to \$3.50; 5 packers, \$12; 4 pot makers, \$24 to \$9; 23 cutters, \$20 to \$5; 4 mould makers, \$21 to \$15; 1 mixer, \$14; 2 sloarmen, \$12.50; 2 shearers, \$16; 1 blacksmith, \$14; 1 drayman, \$13.50; 1 sweeper, \$10; 1 yard man and 1 watchman, \$9. The boys assist the men; girls select, burnish, rough and gild. Much family labor is employed—one family having seven in the works. Hours of labor, 60; the glass makers alternating the time, five hours on and seven hours off.

A glass concern in Berkshire County, engaged in the manufacture of plate and crystal glass, a new enterprise and one of great interest, failed to make a return.

SUBDIVISION 5.—*Lime.*

Lime kilns are quite numerous in Berkshire County.

A firm employing 19 persons reports a cooper paid \$3; a packer, \$1.62; a cooper's helper, \$1; 4 firemen at from \$54.25 to \$39 a month; 8 quarry men, from \$45.50 to \$38 a month. Hours of labor, 63; firemen 12 hours on and 12 off; unable to read or write, 9; 2 own places, and all live within a half mile.

A firm employing 9 men, pays 2 coopers \$2.25; 2 firemen, \$2; 2 teamsters, \$1.56; and 3 quarry men, \$1.65. Hours of labor, 70.

Another firm pays as highest wages, \$2.25; lowest, \$1.50; and still another, \$2.50 and \$2.

Length of working season, 10 months. Some Sunday work.

SUBDIVISION 6.—*Quarries.*

The larger part of the granite quarries are in Milton and Quincy. The workers who get the granite out are called quarry men, and those who prepare it for use, hammer men, or stone cutters; the wages of the former are from \$3 25 to \$1.25, and of the latter, \$4 to \$2.50; averages, \$2 and \$3, those higher and lower being of overseers and apprentices generally. Three companies report 44 quarry men to 84 hammer men. Of 132 employed by three companies only 9 are unable to read and write. The hours of labor are 60 in summer and 54 in winter. Quarry men work $10\frac{1}{2}$ months in the year, and hammer men 11 months. The men are paid on the first Monday of the month. The stone cutters, though having no formal labor organization,

will not work under price nor take the work of another for less than he will do it for himself. The employers admit that the employés virtually set their own terms, and say the arrangement makes no trouble whatever. This state of things has existed for two or three years. A man who has quarried and hammered for 15 years, some of the time on his own account, says the life is a very hard one; the labor being very exhausting. Few of the men get more than a bare living.

The following return is given because most complete :

TABLE No. I.—Granite Quarry.

No. of Persons in each Class.	O C C U P A T I O N .	Average Wages.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
18	Stone Cutters, . . .	\$3 00	\$99 00	\$60 00
14	Quarry men, . . .	2 00	58 50	20 00
3	Blacksmiths, . . .	2 37½	91 00	23 75
2	Teamsters, . . .	2 12½	57 37	51 00

Hours of labor, 60 ; all can read, but 2 cannot write.

There are several marble quarries in Berkshire County. Two firms employ 20 men each. One hires a foreman at \$3, 2 engineers at \$2.50, 2 cutters at \$2.50, 4 sawyers at \$2, and 15 quarry men at \$2. All native but 6; 3 cannot read and write; hours of labor, 59. Another firm pays a foreman \$3.85, an engineer and blacksmith \$3 each, 2 teamsters \$1.75, 3 yard hands \$2, 4 sawyers \$1.75, 8 quarry men \$2. All foreign but one; hours of labor, 66; cannot read or write, 9. At one quarry the work is kept up from April to November, the men all boarding together, away from home; quarrying carried on 30 feet below the surface; color of marble light-blue, used for building purposes. The other, though hiring Irish and French at a low rate of wage, wants cheaper labor, and would like the “Chineemen.” Runs his works 12 months and his quarry 9 months. Six of the men are single; the rest have families. Sends a good deal of marble to the Philadelphia market.

At a stone quarry in Suffolk County, 75 men are employed ;

wages of drillers, teamsters, etc., \$3 25 to \$2.16, the average being \$2; 30 cannot read or write; hours of labor, 60.

At a quarry in Hampden County 121 men and 4 boys are employed, 35 are native and 90 foreign. Wages and earnings as follows:—

TABLE NO. II.—*Quarry.*

No. of Persons in each Class.	O C C U P A T I O N .	Average Wages.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
40	Stone Cutters, . . .	\$3 50	\$97 50	\$78 00
6	Masons,	3 00	78 00	—
3	Blacksmiths, . . .	3 50	91 00	78 00
60	Quarry men, . . .	2 00	51 00	41 00
12	Teamsters, . . .	1 90	50 00	47 50
4	Tool Boys, . . .	75	20 00	—

In the same county is an emery mine, the only one now worked in the country. About 40 men are employed, at wages from \$2.50 to \$1.50 a day, classified as follows: one each, blacksmith, carpenter and teamster; two each, graders and packers; three cobbers; four crushers; six laborers; twenty miners, the latter English. Good class of men, and relations every way pleasant. Hours of labor, 60; ore-bed work, 8 hours on and 8 hours off. Men paid the first week of the month.

A company engaged in working up foreign emery ore, and located in Middlesex County, employs 11 men at wages, per month, from \$166.67 to \$39, the average being \$45.25. Hours of labor, 60.

SUBDIVISION 7.—*Works and Yards.*

A marble worker in Franklin County has 8 employés, a foreman, an apprentice and 6 journeymen, the latter earning from \$60 to \$50 a month. The apprentice receives \$100 per year and board. All are paid by the hour; usual hours of labor, 60. The journeymen come from Vermont.

A firm in Worcester County, using steam power, employs 40 men, at from \$91 to \$25 per month. Hours of labor, 60.

In Boston, a varied and heavy business is done in stone work.

A firm engaged in marble sawing pays its men \$10 a week; hours of labor, 60; business steady. An employer working upon soapstone and marble pays men \$12 and apprentices \$4 a week; hours of labor, 50; working season, 11 months. A dealer in flagging stone employs 4 men the year round; hours of labor, 54; wages not given. A granite dealer employs 20 men, all foreign, at an average per diem of \$3.75; hours of labor, 60. A freestone and marble cutter employs 200 men, 180 foreign, at per diem of \$4.50; hours of labor, 54. Another in the same business employs 14 men and 4 apprentices; cutters are paid \$3.25, and rubbers \$2 per day as an average. Earnings for six months, from \$625 to \$150. Apprentices receive 90 cents per day.

DIVISION V.

SUBDIVISION 1.—*Bookbinding.*

Three returns from Boston and vicinity. Information on wages paid elsewhere under miscellaneous employment table.

A pamphlet binder employs 46 persons; 6 men, 35 women and 5 young persons; average wages per week, respectively, \$11.67, \$7.21 and \$4.70. A custom and general binding firm employs 5 men, 8 women and 3 young persons. Wages—highest, lowest and average per day, as follows: men, \$3.50, \$2.50, \$3; women, \$1.50, 75 cents, \$1; young persons, \$1. Hours of labor, 59.

The fullest returns received give the following information:

No. of Persons in each Class.	O C C U P A T I O N .	Average Wages per Month.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
8	Printers,	\$41 00	\$86 67	\$21 67
15	Bookbinders, . . .	38 16	100 13	12 50
32	Book Sewers, . . .	20 64	32 84	20 16
3	Book Folders, . . .	38 56	46 80	30 82
3	Paper Rulers, . . .	33 24	43 44	23 25
52	Pocket Book Makers, .	32 39	107 71	10 83
1	Engineer,	65 00	65 00	—
1	Watchman,	45 56	45 56	—

Number employed, 115 ; native, 95 ; hours of labor, 60 ; on Saturday, 9 hours ; dinner-time, 50 minutes ; all can read and write ; average earnings per day for each person employed, 77 cents.

Employment in this trade is irregular, especially among those who work by the piece, and are unskilled save in a single specialty. This remark especially applies to girls employed as folders and sewers.

SUBDIVISION 2.—Engraving and Lithographing.

Wood engraving gives steady and remunerative compensation to those who master the trade. The wages paid are reported by one firm as \$4 a day for men, and \$1.25 for young persons ; by another, as \$29.33 per week for men, and \$4 for young persons. Hours of labor, 54.

In lithography, one firm reports the average wages of men per week as \$14 ; young persons, \$5.50 ; hours of labor, 48. Another gives the average pay of men per week as \$18 ; young persons \$4 ; hours of labor, 48 ; a part of the force employed only 10 months of the year. A third, in a higher grade of the business and employing for the whole year, pays artists \$40, and artists' apprentices \$5 a week ; printers \$23, and printers' apprentices \$6 a week. Hours of labor—artists, 42 ; printers, 54. A fourth, of the same class, employs 31 persons, 7 of them boys, and pays the men from \$40 to \$8, and the boys from \$7 to \$3 ; hours of labor, 56. A firm engaged in another branch of business, as well as this, reports as follows :—

No. of Persons in Class.	O C C U P A T I O N .	Average Wages per Day.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
1	Draughtsman, . . .	\$4 50	\$121 50	\$117 00
3	Engravers, . . .	4 50	125 00	100 00
3	Foremen, . . .	4 00	120 00	80 00
8	Lithographers, . . .	3 50	100 00	70 00
4	Wood Workers, . . .	2 50	75 00	60 00
6	Workmen, . . .	2 00	65 00	38 00
12	Girls and Women, . . .	1 00	35 00	20 00
3	Boys, . . .	75	25 00	12 00

Hours of labor, 59; Saturday, 9; one-fourth of employes foreign, mostly German. The lithographers work 9 hours, and the artists and engravers 8 hours a day. Has a steam lithographic press in use, run by a man and boy, which does the work of six or eight hand-presses, one man to each. The men were rather opposed to its introduction, but the employer put them on their honor in the matter, and took no measures of special precaution. None were thrown out of employment by the new machinery; amount of business largely increased; able to compete with printing now to better advantage than before. One employing firm pays two of its artists \$55 per week.

SUBDIVISION 3.—*Paper.*

This is one of the leading industrial interests of Western Massachusetts, though by no means confined to that section. Holyoke and Lee are the great centres of production. Seven counties are represented in our returns, though much the larger number are from Berkshire, Hampden and Hampshire. Most of the essential items of information are tabulated herewith. From the returns of 21 establishments giving the amount paid for wages in six months, the average pay per day of each person employed is found to be \$1.12½.

TABLE No. I.—Paper. No. of Employés, &c.

NUMBER OF BLANK.				Total Number Employed.	Native	Foreign.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Hours of Labor per Week	Hours Saturday.	Time for Dinner, minutes.	No. cannot Read nor Write.
1,	.	.	.	51	18	33	25	21	5	60	10	60	—
2,	.	.	.	162	12	150	83	59	20	60	—	60	—
3,	.	.	.	95	16	79	30	33	32	54	9	60	—
4,	.	.	.	80	20	60	12	60	8	59	9	60	6
5,	.	.	.	64	6	58	13	5	46	60	10	60	—
6,	.	.	.	60	20	40	16	36	8	60	8 ³ / ₄	45	28
7,	.	.	.	20	6	14	10	6	4	60	10	—	—
8,	.	.	.	25	9	16	7	12	6	64	9	—	—
9,	.	.	.	75	9	66	16	14	45	64	9	60	—
10,	.	.	.	29	5	24	16	7	6	60	10	60	9
11,	.	.	.	153	36	117	58	87	8	58	8	60	50
12,	.	.	.	49	2	47	16	22	11	63	10 ¹ / ₂	60	24
13,	.	.	.	100	25	75	30	60	10	60	10	60	40
14,	.	.	.	274	91	183	79	195	—	60	8	—	—
15,	.	.	.	52	1	51	7	33	2	58	8	45	—
16,	.	.	.	121	16	105	—	—	—	58	8	60	70
17,	.	.	.	70	10	60	22	21	27	60	9	60	20
18,	.	.	.	77	24	53	4	46	27	58	8	60	4
19,	.	.	.	50	12	38	16	11	17	59	9	52	—
20,	.	.	.	500	100	400	200	200	100	66	8	60	33
21,	.	.	.	100	25	75	25	50	25	59	9	60	—
22,	.	.	.	100	25	75	28	72	—	60	10	60	10
23,	.	.	.	51	3	48	22	29	—	60	10	60	6
24,	.	.	.	10	8	2	8	2	—	60	12	60	—
25,	.	.	.	16	15	1	7	5	6	60	10	60	—
Totals,				2,384	514	1,870	750	1,086	413	—	—	—	300

TABLE No. I.—Paper. Wages, &c.—Concluded.

NUMBER OF BLANK.		AVERAGE WAGES PER DAY OF MEN.						AVERAGE WAGES PER DAY OF WOMEN.					
		Foremen.	Machine Tenders.	Engineers.	Finishers.	Machinists.	Helpers.	Labors.	Rag Cutters.	Rag Sorters.	Calender.	Finishers.	Young Persons.
1,	.	-	\$3 38	\$2 86	\$3 12	-	-	\$1 00	-	\$0 75	-	-	-
2,	.	\$3 00	2 50	2 67	-	-	\$0 85	-	\$1 00	1 25	\$1 25	\$1 25	-
3,	.	-	2 50	2 00	2 25	-	1 00	-	-	-	-	-	-
4,	.	-	3 00	2 25	-	-	-	-	-	1 00	1 00	-	\$0 75
5,	.	-	5 73	3 65	5 36	-	1 50	1 50	-	-	-	1 05	-
6,	.	2 25	2 25	2 00	-	-	-	-	-	75	-	75	-
7,	.	2 75	2 75	2 10	2 50	-	1 50	-	-	-	-	1 37	-
8,	.	-	-	2 25	1 35	-	1 67	1 75	-	1 00	-	1 00	-
9,	.	3 83	3 00	2 17	-	-	-	1 61	-	75	-	-	-
10,	.	-	2 00	2 75	2 00	-	2 00	1 75	1 00	1 12	1 00	-	1 00
11,	.	-	1 50	2 75	-	\$3 00	1 62	-	-	1 12	1 17	-	80
12,	.	-	1 75	2 75	2 25	3 25	-	1 75	-	1 25	1 40	1 37	1 25
13,	.	-	2 25	2 50	2 25	-	-	2 50	-	1 25	-	-	-
14,	.	-	1 62	2 75	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15,	.	-	-	2 75	2 50	-	1 50	-	-	-	-	-	-
16,	.	-	2 50	2 00	2 50	-	1 67	1 75	1 00	80	1 25	1 50	1 25
17,	.	2 50	2 33	1 67	2 50	-	-	1 50	90	37	75	-	90
18,	.	3 00	2 00	1 67	1 83	-	-	1 50	83	67	67	-	83
19,	.	6 00	3 00	2 00	-	3 00	1 50	1 50	1 67	85	-	-	-
20,	.	2 75	3 00	2 50	2 50	-	1 75	1 75	-	80	1 00	87	75
21,	.	-	2 50	2 50	-	-	1 50	1 50	-	-	-	-	-
22,	.	-	2 25	1 75	2 50	-	-	-	-	75	-	-	-
23,	.	-	2 25	2 00	-	-	-	-	-	75	-	-	-
24,	.	3 00	2 00	2 00	-	-	-	-	-	1 00	-	-	1 00
25,	.	-	2 50	2 00	-	-	-	2 00	2 00	1 00	-	-	80

Though only 25 returns are tabulated, 32 establishments were heard from with more or less completeness. About half of those tabulated represent corporations, and are mostly engaged in the production of writing-paper, a business which has been found so profitable as to admit of constant enlargement by the building of new mills and the extension of old ones. A corporation in Berkshire County has five or six mills under its control, stretching along several miles of the Housatonic River. Besides writing papers of different grades and styles, there are mills exclusively engaged in the manufacture of wall, bank-note, news, collar and manilla papers. The classification and kind of labor employed in all these, vary somewhat from those of writing paper.

A manufacturer of wall papers reports 6 men and 2 women employed, classified as foreman, machine hands, engineers, rag pickers, bleach hand and yard hand; average wages of men \$1.87, and women, 75 cents; cannot read and write, 3.

A manufacturer of bond and bank-note paper employs 10 men, 6 women, and 4 young persons, classified as foreman, machine tenders, engineers, finishers, rag women and laborers; wages of men \$2.25 to \$1.50, and of women 75 cents; hours of labor, 66 in summer, 54 in winter.

A news paper manufacturer in Eastern Massachusetts employs 48 men and 29 women, classified as machine hands, engineers, laborers, sorters and layers, with wages of men from \$2.25 to \$1.50, and women from \$1 to 75 cents; earnings of men in six months from \$480 to \$235, and women from \$156 to \$114; hours of labor, 48 to 72; board of men \$2.50 and women \$1.75; average amount paid to each person, per day, \$1.26; dinner-time, 75 minutes; cannot read and write, 6. Another manufacturer of news paper, in Western Massachusetts, employs 7 men, 3 women, 3 young persons and 3 children; wages—men, \$3 to \$1.50; women, \$1; young persons, \$1, and children 75 cents; hours of labor, 60 to 72; machinery runs from Monday morning to Sunday morning, at 12 o'clock, and the men in charge of it work every alternate eight hours during this time; all the employes live within a mile; average amount earned per day, \$1; the children have their full legal schooling.

A collar paper manufacturer employs 49 persons, all but 2

foreign,—16 men, 22 women and 11 young persons,—classified as engineers, helpers, machine men, machine tenders, calender hands, sorters, foremen, machinists and boys ; wages—of men, \$4 to \$1 50 ; women, \$1.12 to 75 cents ; young persons, \$1.17 to 80 cents ; hours of labor, 63 ; board of men, \$3.25 ; 24 cannot read and write ; tenements rented at \$8 a month ; largest number at work in the mill from one family 4, though there have sometimes been 7 and 8 ; the foreign element largely Irish, with some French and Scotch ; average amount paid each person, \$1.59 per day.

A manilla paper manufacturer employs 9 persons, each with a separate employment designation, and pays men wages from \$2 50 to \$1.15, and girls 50 cents ; hours of labor, 72 ; business unsatisfactory. Another company located in a different place reports that, on account of the machinery introduced, only men are now employed, at pay from \$2.50 to \$1.50 per day.

An establishment making the very finest quality of writing paper, has a force of 80 employés,—12 men, 60 women, and 8 young persons ; hours of labor, 59 ; board for men \$2.50, and women \$1.50 ; unable to read and write, 6. Average wages as follows :—

TABLE NO. II.

Number Employed.	OCCUPATION.	Wages per Day.
2	Machine tenders, at	\$2 50
2	Assistants (young persons),	75
40	Rag cutters (women and young persons),	1 00
4	Loftmen,	1 80
4	Calender women,	1 25
4	Finishers (men and women),	2 25 a 1 25
2	Engineers,	2 00
1	Bleacher,	1 62½
1	Sizer,	2 00
9	Sorters (women and young persons),	1 25
3	Rulers (men, women and young persons),	2 50 a 67
2	Firemen,	1 50
2	Teamsters,	1 25
2	Carpenters,	2 00
1	Millwright,	2 00
1	Blacksmith,	2 50

Another company, in the same line of business, reports 100 employes,—28 men and 72 women ; wages—of men, from \$2.50 to \$1.25 ; and of women, \$1 to 75 cents ; hours of labor, 60 ; board, \$4 and \$2.50, to men and women ; average pay per person employed, \$1.37. The largest company in the business works 66 hours, employs four-fifths foreign help, has 133 at work unable to read and write, pays an average to each person employed of 62 cents a day, employs children to some extent, and provides board for \$3.25 and \$2.75 to men and women. One of the Holyoke companies has 51 foreign to 1 native employed ; hours of labor, 58 ; dinner-time, 45 minutes. Another has 32 men employed and 89 women, the former averaging \$2.50, and the latter 62 cents ; hours of labor, 58 ; average pay per day to all employed, \$1 02. A company employing 58 men, 87 women and 8 young persons, pays an average per day to each person employed of \$1.33 ; hours of labor, 58 ; unable to read and write, 50. A company in Worcester County pays its men (book-keeper and foreman included) from \$100 to \$19.50, and its women and young persons \$18.75 to \$5.25, per month ; average per day paid out to each person, \$1.43. A company in Hampden County employs 16 men, 36 women and 8 young persons, and pays an average to each of \$1.10 per day ; highest and lowest earnings of men, for six months, \$650 and \$231 ; highest and lowest of women, for five months, \$173 to \$69 ; hours of labor, 60 ; unable to read or write, 28 ; dinner-time, 45 minutes ; price of board, \$3.50 and \$2 50 for men and women.

General Statements.

(1.) The rental of our tenements is from \$12.50 to \$6.25 per month. Summer working day, 11 hours ; winter 9 hours. Largest number at work from one family, 3 ; all adults. Night overtime work paid at double rates ; other overwork at regular rates.

(2.) Rag women work about 9 hours a day ; they go from mill to mill as needed, working by the piece altogether, being paid so much a hundred. They have about four days' work per week, stopping at one mill until the machinery is provided for a certain time ahead, and then going to another. Average lost time of the company, from necessary causes, a week or ten days per annum.

(3.) We ran on half time two months of this year. Rent ten tenements for from \$8 to \$2.50 per month. Have a boarding-house,

hire the keeper, buy provisions, and set the price of board. Have a store where employés run up accounts as they feel inclined, the same being charged them on the pay roll. Pay on the 15th up to preceding 1st of month. Don't know how many can read and write.

(4.) Very few children employed in our business. Machines run from 12 to 18 hours a day, as may be required. Usual hours, 60 per week. Pay cash for wages on 20th of month, up to preceding 14th. Tenement prices, from \$5 to \$3 a month.

(5.) Most of our men are paid \$1.50 per day, and women \$5 a week. Machine hands work day and night, 12 hours on and 12 hours off. Stop at 10½ Saturday nights, and commence at 1 o'clock Monday mornings. Have a school at one mill, half the expenses of which are paid by town and half by us. Half the children are turned out alternately to attend it. Parents want children to go to school. Have 25 tenements, renting from \$6 to \$1.50 per month. We are buying up places all the time and making improvements in them, and then renting at low figures. Irish, German and Scotch include most of the foreigners. The tendency of the foreigner is toward improvement, especially in dress, but after all it is very slow. We keep a month's pay back. None of the company stock is sold to outsiders; it is nearly all owned in one family. Some men have been in our employ 25 years. Very few accidents occur.

(6, 7.) Pay on the 15th up to preceding 1st. Rents same as in 1855, \$30 a year. Board our women for \$2.50. Hours of labor, 59.

(8.) Agent has shut the gates at the mill himself every night but two for thirteen years. Runs nine hours per day. Thinks the men ought to have more time for self-education. Thinks that it would be well to adopt 8 hours; nearly as much, taking the year through, would be done as now.

(9.) We pay on the 15th of the month, up to preceding 1st. About 10 per cent. a month can be deducted for lost time of employés. Of the rag sorters, half are steadily employed, the other half being transient. Two-thirds of all our employés can read or write. Half the foreign born are Irish. We notice a constant improvement in them. They are more temperate than formerly, which is largely due to the efforts of the parish priest. About one-fifth of our men have tenements of their own, though many of these are cheap and poor—mere shanties. As the man gets ahead, however, he will pull his poor concern down, and put up a neat frame house. Their food and clothing improve with better houses. Those tumble-down houses near the canal belong to the Water-Power Company, and are in what is called Poverty Lane; up the hill, the

other side, is a settlement called the "Patch." Land here is very high, and is nearly all owned by the corporations. It is not easy for a workman to get a house of his own, within convenient distance. We have 30 tenements which rent to outside parties for \$12, and to our own men for \$8 a month. About half of those who rent hire our tenements; the rest rent of outside parties. We use no pressure in the matter. Within the last ten years there has been a decided improvement in habits of saving. The greater part of the \$40,000 in our savings bank was put there by mill hands and operatives. The first disposition the Irishman makes of his surplus money is to hide it away in the house; his next phase of acquisitiveness is to invest in real estate. We are paying better wages now than during the war, as there is something of a scarcity of good help. Usually there is an understanding among our manufacturers as to the wages we will pay employes; but when a man comes to us and says he can't well live on what we are paying him, we raise his wages as much as is necessary. Our company would be as willing to pay women \$2 as \$1, and men \$4 as \$2, if others would do the same. As now situated, we could afford to do so. Have never had strikes, or trouble of that sort. Would look with favor on any of those changes in taste or habit that would create a demand for higher wages. Twenty-five years ago there were only foreigners in the trade; then every one knew the business as a whole; now only a part is learned. There is considerable room for promotion, but it comes more through managing capacity than through the knowledge of a variety of parts. It is a more healthy business than formerly. Less chloride of lime is used. The machine room is the most unhealthy place, on account of the heat. Sometimes disease is caught from the rags. Colds and lung difficulties spring from careless exposure after being in a moist and heated atmosphere. There is great neglect of the school and employment laws concerning children in the place (town of Holyoke) where we have so many factories. The results are bad.

(10.) Mr. Gould, of the firm of Chapin & Gould, on the Westfield River, in the town of Russell, declined to give any information whatever to the Bureau. His statistics were not considered of any more value than those of other parties in that part of the State, and the matter was not pressed. We regret to hear that the mill, which seemed to be a fine one, has since burned down.

(11.) Owner a gentleman of wealth and public spirit. The mill in every respect scrupulously neat and well ordered. In the mill the workers were many of them foreign, but all appeared cheerful, cleanly, intelligent and well mannered. A young man tending his

machine would now and then give a few moments to reading from "Half Hours with Eminent Authors," which he had taken from the free library attached to the establishment. This library is established in a fire-proof building on the grounds, and is well supplied with standard, miscellaneous and useful literature. The proprietor requires no fee, and does not restrict its use to his own work-people. It is open afternoons and evenings, and is presided over by a young lady, whose health does not permit her to work in the mill as formerly. The chairs, carpeting and general surroundings conspire to make it an attractive place of resort. A boarding-house and twelve tenement houses or cottages are scattered about the level area in front, with its mountain background. These rented houses have six rooms each, and rent for \$50 per annum. Each one is separate, has garden land attached; all are kept well painted and repaired, and none look as though mere fixtures of the mill. The proprietor, instead of encouraging self-ownership of real estate by his work people, tries to purchase everything available in the neighborhood, so that he may wholly control the character of the surroundings. He buys but does not sell. Is building a new and larger mill further down the stream. The boarding-house furnishes accommodations for from 30 to 40 persons, with full board at \$2.50 for men and \$1.50 for women. The house looked neat and cleanly, but was very plain, almost entirely lacking in anything like ornament. Aims to keep his working people up to a certain standard of working ability and good character; to see that in all the ordinary substantial of life they have as good as himself. Has his pick of help from the region around. Some are hired on who do not appreciate what is required, and after faithful trial are discharged. Never changes wages. Often buys and puts in store quantities of fuel and provision. Never charges more than first cost, and when the price outside goes down charges only current rates, even if lower than his own purchase cost. For instance: had a lot of flour purchased at \$9.50; the price went up to \$20 for same grade, but he continued to sell at \$9.50. At another time bought at \$9.75 and sold at \$9.50 per barrel. Runs the mill every day in the year except Sundays. Does not stop on any holiday, because it takes so long for employes to recover from the effects of visits or spree.

(12.) Location, an old-fashioned farming town in Western Massachusetts, with some paper and cotton manufacturing. In the largest paper mill two-thirds of employes are girls and women. In packing, ruling, calender and sorting rooms, the work is lighter and cleaner than in other apartments, with pay about the same—from

\$1.25 to \$1 per day. Most of the girls are Yankee born. In the rag-room, a very large apartment, were 165 women, all wearing white dusters or kerchiefs over their heads. They stand before wooden boxes or bins, and in front of upright scythe-blades for knives. The rags are pulled or drawn across these blades. The position is constant, and the work laborious, requiring a good deal of strength, the strain and fatigue coming across the chest. Considerable fine dust is raised, and if harm comes at all it is to the throat and lungs. Some paleness of complexion was observable, but the general appearance of the women was healthy. Room tolerably light and windows open; in winter they are closed, and then the dust is more abundant. Many have worked in the room for several years. Most of the women here are foreign born. Earnings (piece work) from \$1.50 to 75 cents per day. Highest earnings, \$45 a month; average, \$30. In the machine-room one of the tenders affirms that he was unhealthy when he commenced work, but began at once to improve, and was never better than now. A good deal of steam in the room; temperature rather high; the smell rather offensive, but there seemed nothing noxious about it. In the dusting-machine room one man was employed. Here the rags are taken from bales, and revolved in a cylinder set with brushes and fans. The air all about is filled with dust, and but a few moments suffice to produce in the throat a sensation of irritation and choking. In the general machine-room the tenders are employed in twelve-hour reliefs. Goods are now sold direct from the manufactory instead of through commission houses. The saving claimed is from 7 to 10 per cent., and the business has, since the change, become more reliable.

(13.) A disinterested gentleman in one of the towns in Berkshire County, says that workers in the paper mills have all they can do to keep soul and body together. Many while working have had to come upon the town for aid for their families, in order to get through the winter season. With only three or four permanent paupers, the pauper bill of the town was \$3,000 last year. One of the leading paper men reported among acquaintances, that the company had made \$100,000 in six months' time. Has known deaths to occur from smallpox caused by infected rags.

Wood Pulp.

The conversion of wood fibre into pulp has become quite a business, though it requires but a limited number of men. In a small village in Berkshire County, there are three of these mills, under the control of the inventor of the process, a Ger-

man. Very heavy machinery is used. The wood is cut stove length, the bark stripped off, and the split sticks are put into the machines and worn away by attrition. The resulting product is shipped in large bags. One establishment gives its working force and wages as follows: 3 foremen at \$75 a month; 14 laborers at from \$1.75 to \$1.50 per day; 2 boys at 50 cents a day. The mills run night and day, when there is water enough, and the men work in twelve-hour reliefs. All are foreign, and nearly all German. Board, \$4; rents, from \$5 to \$1.50 a month; paid on 5th of month up to preceding 1st.

Envelopes.

One return. Number employed, 12; half native and half foreign; 5 men, 6 women, 1 young person. Hours of labor, 59; board for men \$7, women, \$4.50. Wages of men average \$2.50; women, \$1; young persons, 75 cents. Earnings, highest and lowest per month,—men, \$86.58 and \$43.42; women, \$39 and \$20.80. Average amount paid each person per day, \$1.33.

Paper Collars.

Two returns. One company employs 35 persons,—10 men 20 women, 5 young persons; all are classed as paper collar makers, and wages of men are given as from \$6 to \$3; women, \$1.45 to \$1; young persons, \$1; hours of labor, 59; board for men and women, \$5 and \$4.50; average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.10. A firm employing 107 reports all as native but 7; 20 men, 44 women and 43 young persons. Classification and wages as follows: 47 paper-box makers—men \$3.25, women and young persons \$1.40; 30 collar makers—women and young persons, \$1; 16 enamellers—men \$3, women and young persons \$1.40; 4 foremen, \$3.50 to \$2.50; 2 travellers, \$8.33 to \$5; 2 machinists, \$3.20; 2 packers, \$2; 2 teamsters, \$2.25; 1 bookkeeper, \$4.80; 1 engineer, \$3. Women earn per week from \$11.85 to \$4.50; and young persons, from \$9.70 to \$4.50. The pay-roll of one week gives the average of men in enamelling room as \$16, and women \$6.62; in the box shop, average of men \$13.65, and women \$6.78; hours of labor, 59. Pay off every Monday noon. Rooms ample, commodious, elegant and well ventilated. Work not severe,

but requiring skill and intelligence in the management of machinery. The girls mostly live in the homes of parents, many of whom are very well off, some having property to the value of from eight to ten thousand dollars. They are irregular at work because not dependent. Production kept down to a point where a liberal margin of profit can be made. Further particulars in Class III., p. 219.

Paper Boxes.

A return from Western Massachusetts reports one man and nine girls employed; the man earns \$2.50 per day, and the girls from \$9 to \$6 per week; all native; paid every Saturday night; hours of labor, 10; steady employment. An employer in Worcester County hires an overseer and four young persons; earnings per month, \$26 to \$13. Further information in Class III., p. 219.

SUBDIVISION 4.—*Paper Ruling.*

Two returns. One employer hires three men and six girls, who are employed steadily the year through, the men averaging \$13 a week, and the girls receiving from \$8 to \$4 a week; hours of labor per day, $8\frac{1}{2}$. Another one hires three men at an average of \$2.12 $\frac{1}{2}$; four women, at 95 cents, and a boy at 58 cents; steady employment; hours of labor, 54 per week.

SUBDIVISION 5.—*Printing.*

Five returns from Boston. Further information in miscellaneous employment tables. A poster printer employs 15 men and 5 young persons, the former averaging \$18, and the latter \$10 a week; hours of labor, 54. A job printer, employing 12 men, pays per day, highest, lowest and average, \$2.50, \$1 and \$1.64; hours of labor, 59; 9 on Saturday. A firm employing 200 persons, reports 130 native and 70 foreign; 140 men, 40 women, and 20 young persons, with average pay per week to each class of \$15, \$6.50 and \$5; hours of labor, 59; 9 on Saturday. Another firm employing 60 persons, classifies them as follows: 15 men, 20 women, and 25 young persons; hours of labor, 59; wages and occupation as per table following:

TABLE NO. I.

No. of Persons in each Class.	OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE WAGES BY WEEK.		
		Men.	Women.	Young Persons.
2	Proof-Readers, . . .	\$19 00	\$7 00	—
27	Compositors, . . .	18 00	10 00	—
5	Stereotypers, . . .	24 00	—	\$10 00
10	Pressmen, . . .	18 00	—	8 00
8	Feeders, . . .	—	—	6 00
8	General hands, . . .	12 00	—	5 00

Still another method of classification appears in the following table :—

TABLE NO. II.

No. of Persons in each Class.	OCCUPATION.	Average Wages per Week.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
20	Book Compositors, . .	\$18 00	\$136 00	\$60 00
13	Job Room Hands, . .	18 00	120 00	32 00
10	Press Room Hands, . .	10 00	100 00	24 00
5	Ware Room Hands, . .	8 00	64 00	20 00
1	Counting Room, . .	20 75	83 00	83 00
1	Watchman, . . .	12 00	48 00	48 00

In all these offices there is a regular and floating class ; the latter being hired in an emergency when business is brisk, and discharged when it slackens up. Part of the regular and most of the transient class work by the piece, so much per 1,000 ems.

Only job or general printing establishments have been alluded to here. No large newspaper (daily) offices are included. In these there is a good deal of night work, and the rates for composition are higher. There are some parties who do an extensive business in press work alone, acting as intermediaries

between the printing office and the mailing room. The subdivision of labor consists of engineers, entry clerks, foremen, teamsters, pressmen, helpers, feeders and folding-machine tenders.

SUBDIVISION 6.—*Type Foundries.*

Three returns. One gives average wages of men as \$16, and of young persons as \$6 per week. Another, giving classification and wages more complete, reports 25 compositors, at an average per week of \$13; one caster at \$13.50; two moulders at \$27; three electrotypers at from \$25 to \$12; seven finishers at \$24; four proof readers—men, \$24 and \$21,—girls, \$8 and \$6; and five boys or apprentices at from \$7 to \$5. In a foundry where the making of type is carried on free from complication with anything else the subdivision is given more minutely as follows: 13 casters, 1 mould maker, 1 machinist, 10 breakers (young persons), 4 dressers, 31 rubbers and setters, 1 punch cutter, 1 compositor, 1 engineer, 1 fount man and assistant, 2 stereotype finishers, 2 electrotypers, 1 rule maker, 2 lead casters, 1 l. s. rule maker, 2 fitters and one joiner. Wages of men, average, \$5 to \$2.50; women, \$1; young persons, \$1 to 45 cents. Earnings per month, highest and lowest, \$120 to \$50; women, \$40 to \$10; young persons, \$30 to \$10. Average earnings per day of each person, \$1.90. Hours of labor, 60.

DIVISION VI.—MISCELLANEOUS.

SUBDIVISION 1.—*Baskets.*

In Western Massachusetts a small business is done in families at certain seasons of the year in weaving baskets, which the head of the family takes to town, retailing them at the stores as he goes. Sometimes a few are employed besides. A man in Middlesex County, with a capital of \$800 in the business, employs 4 men, and pays them from \$40 to \$15 a month, giving employment from 40 to 60 hours a week. In Hampshire County there is a basket manufacturing company using steam power; 60 persons, sometimes 100 are employed, classified as follows: 10 machine men, 8 finishers, 6 trimmers, 32 weavers, 2 laborers, 1 engineer, 1 teamster. Wages from \$2 to \$1.50 per day, and earnings from \$78 to \$25 per month. Hours of labor, 60; 5 cannot read or write; two-thirds, mostly boys, work by the

piece; factory runs pretty steady, though rather more is done in the fruit season than at any other time; employés paid on account, and settled with quarterly; women could be employed as weavers instead of boys, and would be likely to give better satisfaction; the men seldom miss a day; no work done except by day-light; boys have stents which they do and then go away, often early in the afternoon; woods used oak, ash, elm, beech and rattan; 125 varieties of baskets made; work healthy.

A manufacturer in Berkshire County, who also uses water power, employs 6 men as weavers and finishers, the former earning from \$1.75 to \$1.10, and the latter from \$2 to \$1.20 per day. Hours of labor, 11 in summer, 9 in winter, 9 on Saturday; all are temperate; term of apprenticeship from 2 to 6 months.

SUBDIVISION 2.—*Belting.*

A manufacturer in Essex County employs 10 men,—2 making belting, 2 currying, 4 roll covering, 1 engineer and 1 bookkeeper; wages per day, \$3 to \$2.20; earnings per month, \$80 to \$26; hours of labor, $60\frac{1}{4}$; on Saturday, 9.

SUBDIVISION 3.—*Bleacheries, etc.*

Some facts have already been given. A bleachery in Essex County gives employment to 130 persons,—87 men, 11 women, 27 young persons, and 5 children. The employing force consists of 6 carpenters, 5 machinists, 30 bleachers and dyers, 7 in engine room, 15 caldering and folding, 24 laborers, 11 folders and stitchers, 9 trimmers, 23 boys and girls as helpers. Average wages of men in these classes, \$2.87 to \$1.58; women, \$1; young persons, \$1.21 to 80 cents; children, 83 cents. Earnings per month—men, \$104 to \$34.33; women, \$26; young persons, \$31.46 to \$20.80; children, \$21.58. Average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.96; hours of labor, 66; board of men and women, \$5 and \$3; 7 cannot read and write; children have their schooling. A dye-house and bleachery in Middlesex County pays clerks \$1,100 (men), and \$350 (women); dyers and finishers, \$800; common laborers, \$550, per annum; hours of labor, 54. A dye-house and laundry in Suffolk County employs 104 persons, 30 men and 74 women, classified as follows: 8 clerks and collectors, 4 overseers, 2

engineers and machinists, 14 laborers, 6 dyers, 11 finishers, 39 ironers, 20 washers. Earnings of men, for six months, \$600 to \$174; women, \$312 to \$76.53; 12 cannot read and write; hours of labor, 66; Saturdays, 8 hours.

SUBDIVISION 4.—*Brooms and Brushes.*

Brooms are made to a considerable extent in the Connecticut Valley, where broom-corn has been one of the staple articles of production. An employer in Hampshire County reports that men alone are hired, most of them Irish and French. Average earnings, \$1.75 per day. Wages for a "set day's work," \$28 per month, but the men do extra work, sometimes from one and a half to two days' work in a single day; some men get through their "set work" in five or six hours. A firm in Boston employing 2 men paid them, for six months' work, \$327.68 and \$282.33.

Our brush returns represent four counties, most of the business being done in Boston and vicinity. A manufacturer in Suffolk County employs 13 persons, 5 men and 8 women, the men earning \$3 a day and the women from \$1 to 75 cents. Earnings for six months,—men, \$400 to \$300; women, \$150 to \$100. Hours of labor, 59; average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.48. A small manufacturer in Middlesex County pays his men \$48 to \$40; his women, \$28 to \$18; and his young persons \$16 per month; hours of labor, 60; on Saturday, 5; board of men and women, \$4 and \$2. Another in Norfolk County, employing 34 persons, pays wages from \$2.25 to \$1; 18 are women, 4 young persons, and 12 men; season of work, 10 months; hours of labor, 60. The most complete return is from an establishment employing 42 persons,—15 men, 10 women, and 17 young persons. The classification gives 3 foremen, 17 drawers, 7 setters, 4 combers, 1 nailer, 1 driver, 2 painters, 3 finishers, 2 trimmers, and 2 lumpers. Wages of men, \$2.75 to \$1; women, \$1; young persons, 75 cents. Earnings of men for six months, \$609 to \$180; women, \$210 to \$120; young persons, \$130 to \$88. Average amount paid each person per day, \$1.21; hours of labor, 59.

SUBDIVISION 5.—*Carpets.*

Two returns received from large establishments, one employing 1,302 and another 510 persons—1,812 in all; hours of

labor, 66 ; board for men, \$3.50 and \$3.25 ; women, \$2.50 and \$2.25. Wages of men from \$6.72 to \$1.25 per day, the highest being an overseer in dye-room ; women, \$1.90 to 83 cents, the highest paid being employed in pattern-room ; young persons, \$1.16 to 85 cents, the highest paid being a weaver. Earnings per month,—men, \$175 to \$18 ; women, \$39.69 to \$5.31 ; young persons, \$31.55 to \$9 ; average amount paid each person per day, \$1.21. Detailed information concerning these establishments tabulated under “Woollen” subdivision.

Oil-Cloth.

A company in Bristol County reports 15 persons employed,—10 men, 2 women, and 3 young persons, classified and paid as follows: 1 foreman, \$3 ; 4 milling, \$2.50 ; 2 varnishers, \$2.50 ; 4 helpers, \$1.33 ; 1 engineer, \$1.33 ; 1 boiler, \$3 ; 2 sewing women, 92 cents. Hours of labor, 48.

SUBDIVISION 6.—*Combs.*

Four returns representing two counties, Essex and Worcester, give 138 employés, 74 native and 64 foreign. One return gives the wages of men as from \$3 to \$1.62 ; women, \$1.25 to \$1 ; young persons, \$1.16 to 75 cents. Another, with 4 men employed, pays \$2 a day average. A fancy comb manufacturer, hiring 14 persons, pays men from \$2.50 to \$1.50, and women \$1 a day. At an establishment in Worcester County, where 75 are employed, 65 are male and 10 female ; average wages \$1.50 ; monthly earnings from \$80 to \$20 ; hours of labor, 67. The other establishments report the hours of labor as 60 ; board for men, \$5 ; women, \$3.

SUBDIVISION 7.—*Corks.*

Two returns ; 27 employés, 12 native and 15 foreign ; hours of labor, 59 ; average amount paid each person per day, \$1.42. A company in Boston, with \$10,000 capital invested, employs 18 persons,—8 men, 5 women and 5 young persons, the men averaging \$2.50, the women \$1, and the young persons 60 cents per day. Earnings of men, highest and lowest for six months, \$390 and \$234 ; women, highest, \$156 ; young persons, highest and lowest, \$182 and \$93.

SUBDIVISION 8.—*Felting.*

Two returns representing Middlesex and Norfolk Counties ; number employed, 109,—24 native and 85 foreign,—78 being men, 4 women, 12 young persons, and 10 children ; hours of labor, 66 and $64\frac{1}{2}$; Saturday time, 9 and $9\frac{1}{2}$ hours ; board of men and women, \$4 and \$2.50 ; able to write, 90 per cent, and 1 unable to read or write ; children have legal schooling ; wages, highest and lowest, men \$2.70 and \$1.35 ; women 90 and 83 cents ; young persons, 80 and 75 cents ; children, 75 cents. Earnings per month in one establishment, \$70 highest, and \$36 lowest.

SUBDIVISION 9.—*Hair.*

A manufacturer preparing curled hair on a large scale failed to respond. For other information reference may be made to Class III., p. 218.

SUBDIVISION 10.—*Harness, etc.*

Information as to wages of harness makers will be found to some extent in the miscellaneous employment tables. An employer in Boston says he pays \$24 a week. A horse-collar manufacturer pays men an average of \$2.50, and young persons \$1.25 per day, with employment from 8 to 11 months ; and a manufacturer of horse clothing and saddlery pays his men \$15, women \$10, and young persons \$5 a week, the women having work nine and the rest twelve months.

SUBDIVISION 11.—*Jewelry, etc.*

Under this heading are included fancy articles in jet, general manufactured jewelry, gold chains, gold leaf, spectacles and thimbles, stamping and gilding, tortoise-shell work, watches and clocks and white metal work. The returns represent seven counties.

Under the first class (jet work), 10 men, 5 women and 8 young persons are hired by one employer, whose average pay to men is \$2, and to women and young persons \$1 per day ; highest earnings for six months, \$600 for men, \$180 for women, and \$150 for young persons.

A jewelry manufacturer in Boston says : “ We employ an average of 45 persons throughout the year, with a stoppage of

about 2 weeks in July ; of these persons 28 are men, 10 girls and women, and 7 boys ; we pay men from \$24 to \$12, women \$8 to \$4, and boys \$7 to \$3.50 per week." An employer in Norfolk County hires 2 men and 8 women, the women earning in six months from \$200 to \$150 ; average pay per day to all, \$1.34 ; usual wages of men, \$2.50 per day. Another firm employs 123 persons, 98 of them men, 7 women, 12 young persons, and 6 children ; the men earn from \$137.50 to \$28.32, the women from \$35.40 to \$18.88, the young persons from \$42.28 to \$23.60, and the children from \$21.24 to \$14.16 per month ; average earnings per day of each person employed, \$1.65 ; children have their legal schooling. Still another manufacturer reports the earnings for six months, highest and lowest, men \$600 and \$200, women \$250 and \$150.

A manufacturer of gold chains and first-class jewelry in Western Massachusetts employs 16 men, 3 women, and 16 young persons, paying respectively the average wages per day of \$3.67, \$1.25 and \$1.20.

A gold-leaf maker pays men an average of \$15 and women \$5 a week, all work paid by the piece ; steady employment, except two weeks of the year.

A manufacturer of spectacles and thimbles, hiring 30 persons, pays an average of \$3 per day as wages ; earnings per month, from \$100 to \$50 ; average amount paid per day to each person employed \$2.36. A company engaged in the manufacture of spectacles, eye-glasses, etc., employs 41 men, 6 women and 29 young persons ; average earnings per month, of men \$54.38, young persons \$31.10 and women \$20.56 ; highest and lowest per month, of men \$125 and \$15.66, young persons \$69.68 and \$12.50, women \$33.66 and \$10.07.

A firm in business as stampers and gilders hires 3 women, 2 in laying gold and 1 in box-making ; earnings per month, from \$29.25 to \$17.

A tortoise-shell jewelry firm employing 12 persons pays men an average of \$2.25 and women \$1 per day.

The largest watch establishment in the State employs 707 persons, all but 89 native—435 men, 272 women, 139 young persons and 3 children ; the men average \$3.45, women \$1.50, young persons \$1.16 and children 72 cents per day ; the earnings of men are from \$143 to \$45, women \$47 to \$26, young

persons \$85 to \$17 and children \$18 to \$17 per month ; average amount paid each person employed per day, \$2 50. A company manufacturing watch movements employs 90 persons, boys, girls and men ; earnings per month, highest and lowest, for men \$150 and \$50, girls \$33 and \$20, boys \$45 and \$13 ; one-third of the work done by job or contract, \$10 a day being sometimes made by the most expert and indispensable workmen, but no one is allowed to make money from the labor of others, the contracts only covering one's individual labor ; employés paid on 10th of month.

A watch and clock making company employing 153 persons—95 men, 34 women and 24 young persons—reports the earnings for six months' time, highest and lowest, for men \$1,594 and \$468, women \$195 and \$104, young persons \$390 and \$182 ; average amount paid each person employed per day, \$3.05.

A clock-making firm employs 7 persons, 2 of them apprentices, the men, called machinists, receiving \$2.75 and the apprentices \$1 per day.

A silver-plating firm pays its men \$18 and young persons \$6 per week ; hours of labor, 51 ; one week of vacation per year. Parties engaged in business in Bristol County as manufacturers of white metal, nickel silver and silver-plated goods, employ 400 persons,—280 men, 120 women, and 50 young persons ; men earn from \$200 to \$18, women \$52 to \$13, and young persons \$26 to \$13 per month.

In all these places the proportion of native to foreign is as 4 to 1 ; the hours of labor are mostly 59 and 60 a week, a few being less than 59 ; an hour is given for dinner in all cases ; board is from \$6 to \$4 for men, and from \$4.50 to \$3 for women ; the average amount paid to each person per day in 13 establishments is \$2.18.

SUBDIVISION 12.—*Leather.*

The 20 returns received represent six counties and include these branches : currying, tanning, dressing morocco, patent leather and shoe stock. Grouping them together, we find 561 employed, 150 native and 411 foreign, and nearly all men, the largest number in one establishment being 131, and the smallest 2. Hours of labor, 60 ; with following .

exceptions: one 69, one 66, one 65, four 59, one 57 and one 56. Hours on Saturday, 9,—with following exceptions: one 11, one 10, one $8\frac{1}{2}$. Dinner time allowed 60 minutes; one 50 and one 45 minutes. Cannot read and write, 46. Wages per day, highest and lowest, men \$3.33 and \$1.58; young persons, \$1.75 and \$1. Earnings per month, highest and lowest—men, \$166 and \$20; young persons, \$39 and \$20. Average amount paid per day to each person employed, \$1.84.

The substance of 10 returns is tabulated herewith:—

LEATHER TABLE—Employes, Wages, etc.

No. of Blank.	Total Em- ployes.	Native.	Foreign.	OCCUPATION.	Average wages per week.	EARNING PER MONTH.		Total wages from Jan. 1 to July 1.
						Highest.	Lowest.	
1	20	5	15	{ Foreman, Finisher, Buffer, . Laborer,	\$20 00 12 40 15 00 10 00	\$90 00 58 50 65 00 43 33	\$86 67 50 92 60 00 38 33	} \$6,308 09
2	105	17	88	{ Foreman, Currier, Laborer,	19 25 15 00 10 88	86 66 108 33 69 50	- 42 50 43 33	} 36,523 38
3	7	2	5	Tanner and Currier,	11 50	60 00	30 00	1,841 15
4	14	6	8	{ Foreman, Currier, Tanner, Laborer,	30 00 18 00 10 02 10 02	120 00 - - -	- - - -	} 4,300 00
5	42	10	32	{ Currier, Tanner,	10 14 10 14	92 00 80 00	32 00 36 00	} 15,753 00
6	15	8	7	{ Currier, Finisher,	15 00 13 00	107 00 80 00	20 00 48 00	} 6,042 00
7	12	4	8	{ Tanner, Currier,	11 50 11 50	60 00 60 00	40 00 40 00	} 3,425 00

In the classification of labor in small currying establishments the employés are spoken of as knife men and table men; in larger places four classes are mentioned,—finishers, \$18 to \$14 per week; knivesmen, \$20 to \$16; splitters, \$25; table hands, \$14 to \$10,—average, \$13. Still more minute classification is found to embrace foremen, buffers, finishers, whiteners, knivesmen, engineers, stuffers, boarders, fitters, scourers, splitters, jobbers, yard men and apprentices.

In establishments called tanneries, located on streams contiguous to supplies of bark, the workmen are classed as curriers, tanners and laborers; curriers average \$2, tanners \$1.75, and laborers \$1.50 per day. One employer pays from 20 to 12½ cents per hour, board included.

The larger places in the eastern part of the State where the business is carried on are called leather manufactories, in many of which the range of earnings, per month, is from \$50 to \$30. A firm employing 105 persons in the business, 17 native and 88 foreign, gives classification and wages, per month, as follows:

One general superintendent,	.	.	.	\$250 00
One foreman of tannery,	.	.	.	86 33
One clerk in store,	.	.	.	100 00
One assistant in store,	.	.	.	33 33
One porter,	.	.	.	62 00
Sixty-five curriers,	.	.	.	\$108 33 to 42 50
Five curriers' apprentices,	.	.	.	39 00 to 22 00
Twenty-six tanners and laborers,	.	.	.	69 50 to 43 33
Four teamsters,	.	.	.	66 66 to 47 33

This employer says:—

“The men employed by us are mostly quite intelligent (not more than four or five being unable to read or write); are temperate, orderly and industrious, as we will harbor no other; maintain their families well; clothe their children generally quite neatly, and keep them at the public schools. Our hands are all paid in full every week, on Monday, so that they are enabled and expected to pay as they go, which is about the only way to inculcate in them habits of prudence and thrift, and many of them who have been with us for a long period have acquired homes of their own, and thus become identified with the land and its institutions.

“The larger proportion of the foreigners employed are Irish, and are more or less valuable in proportion to their intelligence and freedom from superstition. We have several Scotch and Nova Scotians, who are excellent men. Several Swedes, who are also very good men and good workmen, but come totally unacquainted with our language. We have also one genuine Mexican lad, placed with us to obtain a knowledge of the business to introduce into that country.”

A leather-dressing firm, employing 2 men, reports their earnings, for six months, as \$350 and \$250.

A morocco-dressing firm in Worcester County hires 2 hide-tanners at \$2.25 and \$1.75, and 10 morocco-dressers at \$2.50, \$2, \$1.37 and \$1 per day. A large business is done at morocco dressing in Lynn. One company there reports 80 persons employed, 17 native and 63 foreign, with wages, per month, from \$166 to \$25, the average amount paid each person employed being a little more than \$2 per day. The employer says: “Wages in our factory are much lower than for many years, as an average, from the fact that we have 18 apprentices who receive very low wages.”

A firm in the patent leather business reports 13 men employed as finishers, at from \$80 to \$20 per month; average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.57.

At a shoe-stock factory in Middlesex County 131 persons are employed, 21 native and 110 foreign, at wages, per month, from \$83.33 to \$8.50; average pay per day to each person employed, 98 cents; 15 cannot read or write. The employer says:—“We cannot very well classify our employés understandingly; a large part of them work by the piece, those running machinery earning more than those at handwork, some nearly as much as their overseers; the few that cannot read or write are nearly all elderly women.”

A leather-pasting establishment in Essex County employs 28 persons, at wages, per month, from \$50 to \$14.; average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.

A shoe-stiffening factory in Suffolk County employs 30 persons, at from \$96 to \$16 per month; average per day to each person employed \$1.67; hours of labor, 60.

SUBDIVISION 13 — *Leather Board.*

This business is really allied to that of paper making, similar machinery and processes being used in it. Two mills report 24 persons employed. It is not stated that any of them are women. The classification is given in one return as including a foreman, two engineers, two machine tenders, a rope-cutter, teamster, finisher and calender man. Wages per day, from \$3.50 to \$1.50 ; per month, from \$90 to \$31 ; average amount paid to each person per day, \$2.

SUBDIVISION 14.—*Pocket Books.*

This business is specially found in Franklin, Hampshire and Worcester Counties. Four returns show the number employed to be 136 : 124 native and 12 foreign, 48 men, 52 women, 35 young persons and 1 child ; hours of labor 60 ; board of men, \$5 and \$4, women \$3 and \$2.75 ; wages of men \$3 to \$2.25, women \$1.27 to \$1, young persons \$1.15 to 63 cents per day ; earnings per month, for men \$78 to \$39, women \$52 to \$20, and young persons \$26 to \$14.30 ; average amount paid to each person per day in three establishments, \$1.26. The most complete classification obtained, representing the oldest establishment, is as follows : 3 overseers, 1 box-cutter, 1 gilder, 1 packer and tanner, 2 box-makers, 2 creasers, 2 curriers, 2 skivers, 5 stitchers, 10 cutters and fitters, and 49 pocket-book makers. Highest wages of stitchers \$1.75, and of other women's work, \$1.25 ; highest wages of men, \$3 per day. About three-quarters of the work is done by the piece, and steady employment is given. Many of the girls live at their homes in the vicinity, while others come from the distance of 50 miles and less, and live at the boarding-house of the proprietor. Some of the most skilled of the men are Germans from New York. In driving times stock is given out to be worked up at homes in the neighborhood. The work is attractive and the workers are a very intelligent class of people. The business in this State originated in Deerfield, and there are now three or four firms interested in it in that place.

SUBDIVISION 15.—*Sewing-Silk.*

A firm in Middlesex County employs 24 persons,—4 men, 7 women, 10 young persons, and 3 children ; average wages per

day of each, \$3.25, \$1.33, \$1.15, and 75 cents; earnings per month, highest and lowest, men \$100 to \$40, women \$36 to \$20, young persons \$18 to \$15, children \$15 to \$11; hours of labor, 60; children have full legal schooling.

An employer in Hampshire County hires 17 men, 30 women, 10 young persons and 4 children; 47 are native and 14 foreign; hours of labor, 60; 9 on Saturday, and 45 minutes for dinner; only one unable to read and write; board for men and women, \$3 and \$2.50; wages per day of men, \$3 to \$1.50; women, young persons and children, \$1.25 to \$1; earnings per month, highest and lowest, men \$78 to \$52, women \$39 to \$20, and young persons \$46 to \$25; average per diem to each person, \$1.26; children have legal schooling. This employer changed from 11 to 10 hours per day in October, 1869, voluntarily, by posting up a notice of the change a month previous, coupled with the hope that every one would do the best possible, so that the change announced as operative for six months only might be made permanent. The results were found to be wholly satisfactory. With no financial loss to the proprietor, there is much better feeling among employés; they are in better health and spirits than before, and the concession has narrowed the social distance between them and their employer. They do about as much work as under the former system; this is easily ascertained, as they are largely paid by the piece. The boarding-house has 16 occupants, furnishing board for \$2.50. The employer aims to make the place a pleasant home; has also 10 houses rented to employés at from \$100 to \$40 a year. The subdivision of labor is indicated as follows: laborer, machinist and watchman, 1 each; 2 carpenters, 3 spinners and twisters, 4 dyers, 4 miscellaneous, 5 packers, 5 reelers, 7 doublers, 8 skeiners, 8 winders, and 12 spoolers; skilful, capable and honest labor required. Name of employer, William Skinner; residence, Haydenville, town of Williamsburg.

The Nonotuck Silk Company, with factories at Leeds and Florence, in Northampton, through its agent, A. T. Lilly, imparted full statistics, which in the matter of wages and earnings did not essentially vary from the last preceding statement. Children are employed, but their schooling is carefully looked after. No new child is hired until there is evidence that it has

had the legal amount of schooling, and at the beginning of every term the factories are carefully inspected in the matter, and delinquents brought up to the mark; good results have always followed care in this respect. The management of the company took the lead in making educational provisions by erecting a superior brick school edifice at a cost of \$35,000, and providing it with all necessary facilities; the house has since been purchased by the town. The upper part is still used as a chapel, library and reading room. The library is free, and access to the reading-room can be had Saturday evenings, and Sundays in summer. The factories run steadily, and the lost time per month to each person will hardly average one day. The girls aim to earn \$1 a day, and don't seem to care about wages beyond that point. The foreign girls work more steadily the year through; American girls apply themselves to work more efficiently, but want to be absent more than the others. Some twenty tenements are rented to families at an average of \$75 a year. The company boarding-house has about 50 inmates and is in the general charge of an employé of the factory, though the agent keeps a constant oversight, as he aims to make it a model establishment. A visit to it showed a house of modern build, in a corner location, and in the immediate neighborhood of some of the prettiest residences in the village of Florence. It is set back from the street far enough to admit of an ample lawn, with shrubbery and flower-urns, while at the side towards the street the approach is past a grassy terrace through a flower-bordered pathway, the clothes-yard lying to the left. On the other side, and stretching away to the rear, is an ample berry and vegetable garden. The well is placed at such a distance from the house that its water must be of a pure quality. In the basement admirable arrangements are made for housekeeping, the kitchen and laundry having every modern labor-saving convenience. A dummy connects the kitchen with the dining-room above, a well-lighted, home-like room, with street and garden out-look. Steam apparatus heats the various halls and rooms. A bright, cheerful sitting-room is furnished for the reception of friends; but at other times it is not much used, the girls preferring to stay in their own rooms. There are seats on the rustic piazza, where the boarders in the warm season can engage in reading and conversation. Special

care is taken in ventilating all parts of the building. All the labor necessary to keep things up to the mark is hired by the company. Provisions of the best quality are purchased, and whatever their cost, the price of board, \$2.50 per week, remains unchanged. Washing is included, except extras, which any member of the boarding family has the privilege of doing up in the ironing-room on her own account. Many of the refining and progressive features of the village are due to this company. The contrast between the surroundings of the silk factory and those of its neighbor in the cotton business is very marked, the boarding-houses of the latter, as well as its tenements, being in immediate proximity to the factory, and all painted of a uniformly disagreeable yellow color; the same contrast in the quality of labor employed, and the hours of work, was equally apparent.

SUBDIVISION 16.—*Twine, Cordage, Flax, etc.*

A manufacturing company in Essex County employs 306 persons, rather more than half foreign,—119 men, 60 women, 78 young persons, and 49 children,—and classified with average day wages, as follows: 69 flax dressing, \$2; 76 preparing, \$2.25, 92, 85, and 52 cents; 95 spinning, \$2.58, 90, 82 and 64 cents; 28 bleaching, \$1.60 and \$1.30; 18 winding and baling, \$1.74, \$1.05 and 80 cents; 20, repairs, etc., \$2.13 and 75 cents. Earnings for six months, highest and lowest, men, \$550 to \$186; women, \$192 to \$83; young persons, \$225 to \$77; children, \$105 to \$70. Hours of labor, 64½; Saturday time, 9½ hours; time for dinner, 60 minutes; board, \$4.50, \$3.50, and \$2.25; unable to read and write, 9; children having legal schooling, 49. Average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.03.

A manufacturer of small hemp cordage, in Suffolk County, employs 4 men at \$2.25, and a boy at four shillings, per day; hours of labor, 60. A large cordage manufacturer in Plymouth County, employing 225 persons, 40 of whom are classed as young persons, and 5 as children, and all but 70 foreign, classifies and pays average wages per day, as follows: 6 overseers, \$2.50; 20 spinners, \$2.17; 30 spinners, \$1.62½; 6 rope-layers, \$2.75; 20 helpers, \$1.67; 119, not designated, \$1.67, 80 and 33 cents; teamsters, \$1.67; and watchmen and skilled laborers, \$4 to

\$1.75. Average pay per day for each person employed, \$1.26. Hours of labor, 60.

A flax mill in Norfolk County reports 296 persons employed, sometimes as many as 375. About two-thirds are native ; men, 85 ; women, 60 ; young persons, 94 ; children, 57. The departments are hackling, preparing, spinning, twisting, weaving and miscellaneous. Wages of men, \$2.45 to \$1.60 ; women, \$1.25 to 80 cents ; young persons, \$1.35 to 70 cents ; children 68 to 40 cents. Hours of labor, 66. Time for dinner, 45 minutes. Average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.12½. The doffers and winders are children, who have their legal schooling.

A firm making linen hose for engines, pumps, etc., pays its weavers from \$20 to \$15 per week.

A manufacturer of gunny cloth employs 169 persons—32 men, 20 women, and 117 children. Wages of men, \$2.50 to \$1.66 ; women, \$1.25 to \$1 ; children, 83 to 50 cents. No particulars concerning hours of labor or schooling of children.

SUBDIVISION 17.—*Whips.*

This business centres in Hampden County, and more especially in the town of Westfield. In two returns the number employed is 173, the native element being in the ascendancy ; of these there are 105 men, 43 women, 21 young persons, and 4 children. Hours of labor, 60. Wages of men, \$3.50 to \$2 ; women, \$1.50 to \$1 ; young persons, \$1.50 to 67 cents ; children 58 cents. Earnings per month, men, \$208 to \$39 ; women, \$63 to \$13 ; young persons and children, \$50 to \$18. There is one incorporated company. Wages in private establishments seem to be a little higher than under the factory system, as reported on the blanks. The subdivision of labor is indicated as follows, in one report : 6 foremen, 14 plaiters, 21 finishers, 16 button-workers, 8 rounders, 33 stock-makers, 7 mounters, 12 leather whip-makers, 6 hand and 2 machine stitchers, 6 cutters, 4 lash-braiders, 4 packers, and a teamster, watchman, and engineer.

An employer in a small village in Berkshire County employs 9 women ; highest, lowest and average wages per day \$1.40, 40 and 50 cents. They work 7 hours per day and are employed nine months of the year.

Machinery has been introduced considerably in the largest factory, on which the hardest work is done; each person only masters and is proficient in a single part; in some seasons only a third of the force employed; a great deal of work given out to be done at home by women and children.

Miscellaneous.

The substance of a few blanks not already classified, or that have been separated from their proper place are given herewith.

A tide mill, engaged in grinding dyewoods and minerals, hires two men at \$2 per day. Runs only when tide is low.

A rice-cleaning mill employs 10 men at \$2 a day.

A glue manufacturer employs 14 persons, all foreign but 2; wages \$12 per week; per month, \$100 to \$43.33; average per day to each person employed, \$1.25; hours of labor, 59.

An employer who makes up furs employs 32 women,—2 cutters, 5 formers, 9 sewers, 10 pressers, 4 trimmers, and 2 helpers, with day earnings from \$2 to \$1; hours of labor, 54.

A maker of supporters, shoulder-braces, etc., pays men and women \$11 a week, and gives employ the year through.

A firm engaged in the manufacture of neck-ties employs 75 persons, all native but 6, classified as 4 men, 49 women, and 22 young persons; average wages per day of men, women and young persons, \$2.33, \$1.54, and \$1.12; average per day to each person employed, \$1.34; hours of labor, 57.

A wire-cloth corporation employs 76 persons, 42 men, 15 women, 13 young persons, and 6 children; average wages of men \$2.50, women \$1.35, young persons \$1, children 80 cents; average per day to each person employed, \$2.39; earnings for six months, men, \$900 to \$125; women, \$225 to \$175; young persons, \$200 to \$140; children, \$150 to \$100.

CLASS V. MECHANICAL.

DIVISION I. CARS AND CARRIAGES.

The following table gives the principal features of the information received from 23 of the most complete returns received:

TABLE No. I.—*Cars and Carriages.*

No. of Blank.	BUSINESS.	No. of Employees.	Native.	Foreign.	EARNINGS PER DAY.		EARNINGS PER MONTH.		Total amount paid in wages for Six Months.	
					Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.		
1	} Car making,	374	161	213	\$3 85	\$1 95	\$125 00	\$37 00	\$98,278 00	
2		93	37	56	3 00	2 50	93 75	31 25	84,375 00	
3		200	133	67	2 75	2 50	91 00	26 00	44,960 00	
4	} Carriages,	68	60	8	2 50	2 00	-	-	23,200 00	
5		28	28	-	3 00	3 00	-	-	-	
6		20	12	8	3 00	2 50	87 00	38 00	6,000 00	
7	} Carriages,	24	-	-	2 96	2 10	126 00	52 00	7,851 00	
8		24	22	2	2 00	-	-	-	7,000 00	
9		40	7	33	4 00	2 00	-	-	-	
10	} Axles and springs,	23	15	8	3 00	2 75	-	-	-	
11		20	9	11	2 00	-	65 00	45 00	-	
12		12	-	-	3 00	2 25	-	-	-	
13	} Carriages,	30	10	20	2 50	-	-	-	7,800 00	
14		20	8	12	3 00	2 00	-	-	-	
15		13	10	3	3 00	2 00	-	-	-	
16	} Carriages,	30	16	14	-	-	78 00	39 00	-	
17		11	3	8	2 50	2 00	78 00	26 00	-	
18		38	33	5	4 50	2 50	-	-	12,000 00	
19	} Carriage wheels,	16	11	5	3 00	2 50	88 00	45 00	6,156 48	
20		14	2	12	-	-	-	-	-	
21		7	4	3	3 00	2 47	78 00	43 33	3,296 00	
22	} Carriage wheels,	21	21	-	-	-	104 00	52 00	-	
23		40	31	9	3 25	2 00	135 00	40 00	16,182 89	
		1,166	633	499						\$317,099 37

SUBDIVISION 2.—*Car Building.*

Three returns received. Subdivision of employment in largest establishment as follows: foundrymen, smith-shop, machinists, woodworkers, painters, upholsterers, laborers and officers. The wages of mechanics in the different car shops have been given: laborers receive \$1.50 per day; officers, \$5; hours of labor, 60; and time for dinner one hour; average pay per day to each person employed, \$2.19; one report says there are about 75 that cannot read and write, another that there are but 3 or 4, and a third makes no statement. One company lets out part of its work by the job, and those taking contracts sometimes make \$10 per day. Average per diem in three companies, \$2.18.

An officer of one company makes the following statements:

“We pay the men from 35 to 15 cents per hour, and they work from 9 to 13 hours a day, according to the pressure of our orders; the average will exceed 10 hours. Most of the men do but one thing; not a man can build a car himself. For instance, one man has done nothing but get out mouldings and inside finish. Machinery for saving labor is being constantly introduced. A bolt machine recently introduced, with two men does the work of six. A third have no trade or specialty, being laborers merely. There is considerable room for promotion for special talent and capacity. A painter who commenced with us as an ordinary painter, at \$2.50 per day, now does fine ornamental work, takes contracts for finishing cars, hiring others to do the filling in while he himself outlines and puts on the final touches. He is consulted on all matters of design. Sometimes he makes \$20 a day, and works only a few hours. Another painter commenced at \$1.50 a day and is now foreman. The book-keeper began as a rubber at 60 cents a day. He was an orphan boy and saved money on his wages which he put into commercial college evening education, and his talents being discovered by accident, he was promoted, and a successful future is before him as a business man. The wood-workers are nearly all Americans. Some colored men were employed, but not being able to hold their own with others one by one went away. Some have places of their own on wages at \$1.50 per day, while others on \$4 a day are always behind.”

SUBDIVISION 9.—*Carriage Making.*

Eight counties are represented in nineteen returns,—two in Berkshire, Bristol one, Essex four, Hampden one, Hampshire

four, Plymouth one, Suffolk three, Worcester three. Additional information, and concerning other places, can be found in miscellaneous employment tables.

Hours of labor in all cases but four, 60 ; one return gives 55, two 58, and one 66 ; Saturday time, 10 hours, except two at 8, and one each at 9 and 11 hours ; dinner-time, 60 minutes, without exception.

Statements of Employers.

(1.) Our journeymen all work by the hour ; if a man makes 8 hours he is paid for it, or if 11 or 12, the same rate per hour.

(2.) Five of our twenty-three men own their homes. Six of employés are French Canadians.

(3.) Our work is divided into four departments,—trimming, wood work (body, carriage and wheel makers), iron work (forgers, helpers and finishers), and painting (painters and ornamenters). Work regular, and workmen of steady habits. Never have trouble. Of 68 persons employed all can read and write but one ; most are married men, and a few own their homes. Pay men off every Saturday night. This custom has been in vogue for two years,—before that paid on account and had full settlement but once a year ; present method gives better satisfaction to both parties.

(4.) All my work is done by the piece, and on this account a third more is accomplished than by day labor. I have several men who earn from \$8 to \$6 per day, with apparently as much ease as others earn \$3 or \$2.50. My shop is arranged for a model shop. Every convenience my genius could suggest has been given to the workmen, and they improve and enjoy it. They work 55 hours a week.

(5.) We have no modern labor reformers or eight-hour men, and no striking for higher wages, but a mutual understanding between employer and employed, and we have reason to believe that there is no sympathy between our workmen and modern labor agitators. About two-thirds are family men. Several own their own homes, and others are laying by funds.

(6.) Four of the twelve carriage makers in our employ own places.

(7.) Part of the year have employed double the force ; the shops are now run with as few men as possible.

(8.) Average wages paid \$2 per day. Apprentices receive \$7 per week. Average length of time men have been with me, 10 years.

(9.) Of the four wood-workers employed, sometimes only one will be at work for a week at a time. Reason—rum or whiskey. Painters are rather unsteady. That part of the business is rather fluctuating—good in dry and bad in wet weather. The trimmer does not have work all the time, so he takes jobs by the piece in other places; he says he makes \$5 a day in such cases. Have this year only employed two-thirds of the help usually required. The business has been uncommonly dull; manufacturing work not having sold at any profit, the work has been chiefly confined to repairing.

In the returns only 11 are reported as unable to read and write.

Average amount of wages paid each person employed per day, as reported by 10 establishments, \$1.98.

A manufacturer of carriage and upholstery trimmings employs 20 persons, 12 men and 8 women; the men earn per month from \$65 to \$45, and the women \$35 to \$20. Hours of labor, 54. Average amount paid per day to each person employed, \$1.92.

Children's Carriages, etc.

Two manufacturers of children's carriages report as follows:

(1.) Hire by the hour, and pay an average of 15 cents per hour; 11 hours only in summer and 9 in winter; pay on the 1st of each month; lost time of employés one day per month.

(2.) Hire from 31 to 7 persons, according to the conditions of the trade; hire by the hour and pay from 15 to 10 cents; hours of labor, 12 to 9; business affected very much this year by the drought.

Three firms make returns concerning the manufacture of children's carriage hardware. One, employing 40 persons, pays men from \$3 to \$2, and women from \$1.25 to \$1 per day; silver-platers from \$4 to \$1; hours of labor, 59; working season, 11½ and 10 months. The second hires 7 men, and pays \$2.50 and \$2. The third employs 28 men, one each, carpenter, machinist, and silver-plater, and the rest classed as laborers; wages from \$3.38 to \$1.90 per day, or from \$100 to \$30 per month. Those called laborers are piece workers; regular employment is given; employer commenced in 1859 with four men; power, a small mountain stream; surroundings pleasant

and even beautiful; majority of employés quite young men; nearly all have accumulated savings, eight living in homes earned with their own hands; the facilities are such that with good habits and the purpose to do so a place could be purchased in five years' time; employer tries to make relations with employés perfectly satisfactory and never has had trouble; hours of labor, 60.

A sleigh manufacturer employing 12 men, and paying them by the piece, gives no particulars as to wages. Another firm in the same business employs three painters, three iron-workers, and two wood-workers, at wages per day from \$2.50 to \$2, the painters not commencing work until August. In one firm where there are three partners, each master of one part, settlement is effected in this way: When finished the sleighs are divided between them, the wood-worker taking half, and the other two a quarter each.

DIVISION II. CONSTRUCTION AND FINISH OF BUILDINGS.

SUBDIVISION 1.—*Builders.*

Statistics concerning wages of carpenters and joiners in miscellaneous employment tables. A firm in Boston pays stair-builders, \$3.50; carpenters and turners, \$3; engineer, \$3; teamsters, \$2, and laborers, \$1.75. Another in Boston hires 11 carpenters at an average of \$2.75; highest and lowest monthly earnings, \$80 and \$48; hours of labor, 59. A third hires 10 men at from \$4.50 to \$1.67 per day; average, \$3.43. A fourth hires 100 men at from \$4.50 to \$2.50 per day; average, \$3.

A building firm in Middlesex County employs 33 men: 28 carpenters at highest, lowest, and average of \$3, \$1.25 and \$2.50; 5 painters at \$3, \$2.50 and \$2.70; has carried on business for thirty years, and worked 10 hours a day for twenty years; pays the same wages per hour in winter as in summer; has for the last five years paid his men every week, and finds it much the best way for all.

An architect in Boston has 15 employés, 13 men and 2 women, engaged in drawing and superintending, at earnings for six months of from \$1,050 to \$450, and of \$600 for women; hours of labor, 48; time for dinner, 75 minutes.

Miscellaneous.

A lumber dealing firm employs 8 men at an average of \$2.32 per day.

Bridge and wharf-builders, and pile-drivers, are paid \$2.50 per day, average; season of employment 250 days per year.

SUBDIVISION 2.—*Masons.*

Reference is made to miscellaneous employment tables. An employer in Boston gives earnings of men for six months, highest and lowest, as \$256 and \$142. Another reports wages of masons as \$3.75, masons' apprentices \$1.50, and laborers \$2.12, per day; seasons, respectively, 68, 230, and 104 days.

A building-mover classifies and pays his employes, 91, as follows: building-movers, \$2.28; masons, \$4, and masons' tenders, \$2 per day; earnings for six months, \$650 to \$312.

Another employer, hiring 12 men, 5 bricklayers and 7 laborers, makes a statement as follows: paid for masons' work, from January 1 to July 1, 99 days, at \$4 per day, \$396; laborers' work, 152 $\frac{3}{4}$ days at \$2 per day, \$305.50; masons' work from January 1 to November 19, 574 $\frac{1}{4}$ days, at \$4 per day, \$2,297; laborers' work, 660 days, at \$2 per day, \$1,320.

This statement shows the irregularity of employment, since the work given divided among 5 bricklayers would supply each with about 20 days' work in six months, and 135 days in twelve months; while the laborers would each receive 22 days' work in six months, and 94 days' work in twelve months. The men of this trade, during the season, are compelled to go from one employer and one job to another, as they find an opening, and must lose a great deal of time.

SUBDIVISION 3.—*Painting.*

Detailed information in miscellaneous employment tables, concerning wages in different branches of the trade, and time employed. A painting firm in Boston makes return as follows: 9 house painters, from \$2.75 to \$2; 2 sign painters, \$3.50 to \$3; 9 long-shoremen, \$2.50 to \$1.75 per day. House painters have work for eight months, sign painters the year through, while long-shoremen paint bottoms of vessels and have no steady employment. Hours of labor, 60. Fresco painters, \$4 per day; hours of labor, 53; on Saturday, 8; working season nine months. Apprentices, so far as reported, \$1.50 per day.

SUBDIVISION 4.—*Plastering.*

An employer in Boston reports 8 employed,—6 men and 2 apprentices. The journeymen receive \$4 per day in summer and \$3.50 in winter. There are not more than ten months' work in the year. Apprenticeship is for four years; pay, per week, for first, second, third and fourth years, \$6, \$8, \$10 and \$15. Each employer has two apprentices, according to the rules of the trade. Two years ago there was a strike for higher wages. Result: some paid the advance, while others did not. Finds the plasterers much more temperate than formerly. Prefers trade union men to outsiders, because better workmen. Trade union has been six years in operation. Thinks it a good thing; men apt to be more steady; none admitted but good workmen. Hours of labor, 58. Further details of wages given in miscellaneous employment tables following. A second firm reports 10 plasterers, 6 tenders or laborers, and 2 apprentices. The tenders earn \$2.25 per day; other wages as above. He says a first-rate man will have pretty steady work the year through.

SUBDIVISION 5.—*Plumbing and Gas Fitting.*

Plumbers in Boston receive from \$27 to \$15 per week, and apprentices from \$12 to \$5; hours of labor, 60 to 54; working season, from 8 to 11 months. Gas-fitters earn from \$18 to \$15 a week; brass-finishers and coppersmiths about the same, and with similar hours of labor and regularity or irregularity of employment.

SUBDIVISION 6.—*Roofing.*

One employer pays his slaters \$3.50 and tenders \$2.50 per day, with hours of labor from 59 to 54, and rather less than ten months' employment per year. Another employs from 20 to 6 workmen, at 48 hours per week, with similar employment season. A third hires 14 roofers at \$3, 10 tenders at \$2.25, and 2 apprentices at \$1.50 per day; hours of labor, 57; working season 11 months.

SUBDIVISION 7.—*Sash, Blinds, etc.*

A firm in Berkshire County hires 25 men, all native but 5, and pays them from \$89 to \$26 per month; average, \$44; average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.60; hours of

labor, 60 in summer, and as long as can see in winter; employés paid weekly. An employer in Franklin County hires 7 sash and blind makers, at an average per day of \$2.25; hours of labor, 60. Two firms in Middlesex County employ 52 men, 35 being native, and pay per day \$1.83, and \$1.75; highest and lowest, per month, \$78 and \$19.50; average per day paid to each person employed, \$1.29; hours of labor, 60. A firm in Worcester County employs 48 persons, 26 native to 25 foreign, at from \$95 to \$18 per month; average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.89; hours of labor, 66 for eight months and 60 for the other four; time allowed for dinner, 45 minutes. An employer in Worcester County hires 61 men, four-fifths of them native, classified and paid as follows:—

No. of Persons in each Class.	OCCUPATION.	Average Wages.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
1	Foreman, . . .	\$3 00	\$78 00	\$72 00
1	Engineer, . . .	2 50	67 00	62 00
12	Door Makers, . . .	2 50	78 00	69 00
5	Sash Makers, . . .	2 50	91 00	38 00
5	Blind Makers, . . .	2 00	64 00	—
1	Turner, . . .	3 00	78 00	—
1	Moulder, . . .	3 00	78 00	—
3	Stair Rail makers, . . .	3 00	78 00	64 00
5	Window Frames & Jobbers,	2 75	71 50	52 00
1	Machinist, . . .	3 50	91 00	—
2	Watchmen, . . .	2 00	52 00	—
8	Planing & Sawing Boxes,	1 75	45 50	32 00
5	Teamsters, . . .	1 75	45 50	39 00
10	House Carpenters, . . .	2 75	91 00	65 00
1	Glazier (job work), .	—	110 00	—

SUBDIVISION 8.—*Sawing and Planing.*

At a saw and grist mill in Bristol County, where millers, sawyers and coopers are employed, 5 men are employed, and from \$50 to \$40 per month is paid as wages; hours of labor, 65. Another firm in the same county pays to 21 men employed, from \$3 to \$1 per day; and from \$78 to \$25 per month; all are paid on the hour basis, on or about the 8th of the month; average amount of lost time, per employé, one day per month.

A firm in Essex County employs 7 men and 2 young persons; four planing-machine men at \$1.87, two circular sawyers at \$2.25, one jig sawyer at \$3, one turner at \$2.75 and one engineer at \$2; earnings per month, men \$75 to \$37.50, and young persons \$50 to \$25; average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.87.

At a mill in Franklin County, where 6 men are employed, planers and sawyers are paid \$2.75, and the laborers \$2 per day; proprietor has an excellent tenement house opposite mill, where five-room tenements are rented to employés for \$100 per year.

A saw-mill firm in Middlesex County, employing 71 men, pays per month from \$100 to \$34.67, the average being \$40; hours of labor, 66. A lumber company hires 24 men, all but 8 of them foreign; yard laborers, including teamsters and those who handle lumber, are paid at from \$52 to \$39 per month; mill and box factory labor, from \$100 to \$39 per month; engineer \$43.33, clerk \$83.33, and agent \$166.67; hours of labor, 60.

A saw mill in Worcester County employs 10 men, at from \$65 to \$39 per month. At a saw mill and box factory, 6 men being employed, wages from \$52 to \$44 a month are paid. A lumber company employs 23 men, all but 5 native,—16 mechanics at \$75, a painter, glazier, teamster and engineer, at from \$62 to \$52, and a book-keeper, salesman and treasurer, at \$83.33 per month. At steam mills where 15 men are employed \$2.50 per day is paid in the box, planing and grist mills, \$2 in the saw mill, and \$3 in the engine-room; no change in wages since the war.

Several returns are from Suffolk County. A lumber firm pays its teamsters \$2.33 and its laborers \$2, and book-keeper and salesmen \$8 per day; hours of labor, 60 in summer and 48 in winter. At a planing mill where 29 men are employed,

the classification includes 3 turners, 4 sawyers, 2 planers, 2 moulders, 1 jointer, 9 cabinet-makers, 4 finishers, 1 foreman, 1 fireman, 1 clerk; wages from \$3.50 to \$2; average amount paid to each person per day, \$1.58. Another firm, employing 74 persons, pays thirty-five \$1.75, twenty-nine \$2.25, two \$2.75, five (surveyors) \$3.25, and three \$4.25; the majority have work but 11 months, the rest the year through. At another mill carpenters are paid \$2.75, and laborers and apprentices \$1.67 and \$1.50. At a large manufactory where 155 persons are employed the classification and wages are reported as follows:—

Average No. in each Class.	OCCUPATION.	Average Wages per Day.
35, . .	Lumber,	\$1 75
36, . .	Carpenters,	3 00
6, . .	Door makers,	3 25
14, . .	Turning,	3 00
17, . .	Moulding,	2 50
5, . .	Veneerers,	2 50
8, . .	Machinists,	2 50
23, . .	Sawing and Planing,	2 50
11, . .	Teamsters,	2 00

Average pay per day to each person employed, \$2.16; 4 colored men cannot read and write.

The hours of labor in all but two cases are given as 60; very few are reported as unable to read and write.

Further information in miscellaneous tables, arranged by counties.

SUBDIVISION 9.—*Stair Building.*

No special blanks received. Some information already given.

The following table presents a consolidation of much of the general information obtained under Division II. of Class V.:—

MECHANICAL TABLE No. I.—Wages, etc.

No. of Blank.	BUSINESS.	Number of Employees.	Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.	Hours of labor per week.	Hours Satur-day.	WAGES PER DAY.		WAGES PER MONTH.		Total amt paid from Jan. 18 to July 18, 1870.
									Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	
1	Carpenters,	5	—	—	—	—	60	10	\$2 85	—	\$78 00	\$71 00	—
2		100	50	50	100	—	60	10	3 00	—	117 00	65 00	\$75,000 00
3		2	1	1	2	—	60	—	2 75	—	78 00	65 00	350 00
4		74	—	—	—	92	60	—	2 75	—	84 00	58 50	—
5		33	19	14	—	—	60	10	2 70	\$2 50	78 00	32 50	—
6		5	86	69	—	—	60	10	3 25	1 75	84 50	44 50	52,220 00
7		10	10	—	9	117	59	9	3 00	—	117 00	78 00	5,354 00
8		11	4	7	11	—	59	9	2 75	—	80 00	48 00	2,473 00
9	Masons,	12	—	—	12	—	60	10	4 00	—	104 00	—	701 50
10	Building mover,	91	—	—	91	—	60	10	4 00	2 00	108 00	52 00	16,280 00
11	Painting,	20	15	5	20	—	60	10	2 50	—	88 50	52 00	—
12		—	—	—	—	—	54	—	2 75	—	71 50	—	—
13		—	—	—	6	160	60	—	2 75	—	71 50	—	—
14	Planing mills,	21	21	2	—	100	60	10	3 00	2 25	78 00	32 50	3,000 00
15		5	4	1	5	—	65	—	—	—	75 00	58 00	9,600 00
16		23	18	5	—	—	60	10	3 00	2 50	78 00	45 00	3,535 00
17		10	7	3	10	—	60	10	—	—	—	—	—
18		29	16	13	29	—	60	8½	3 50	2 00	78 00	20 00	7,212 00
19		22	19	3	22	—	54	—	2 00	—	—	—	—
20		9	9	—	7	120	60	—	3 00	1 87	75 00	37 00	2,632 00

MECHANICAL TABLE NO. I.—Wages, etc.—Concluded.

No. of Blank.	BUSINESS.	Number of Employees.	Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.	Hours of labor per week.	Hours Satur-day.	WAGES PER DAY.		WAGES PER MONTH.		Total am't paid from Jan. 18 to July 18, 1870.
									Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	
21	} Planing mills—Con., }	6	5	1	-	-	60	10	\$1 77	-	\$52 00	\$44 00	\$1,400 00
22		10	-	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
23		24	8	16	-	-	60	10	-	-	-	-	7,320 00
24		71	20	51	-	-	66	9 ³ / ₄	-	-	-	-	-
25	Plasterers, . . .	8	1	7	6	2	58	8	4 00	\$3 50	-	-	-
26	Plumbers, . . .	5	-	-	2	150	60	-	4 00	2 50	-	-	-
27	Roofing, . . .	26	-	-	24	150	57	-	3 00	2 25	-	-	-
28	} Sash and Blind, }	79	-	-	71	125	72	-	2 75	2 00	-	-	-
29		6	-	-	-	-	-	-	2 00	-	71 50	32 00	-
30		48	26	22	-	-	66	11	2 00	-	95 00	18 00	14,150 00
31		32	23	9	32	-	60	10	1 83	-	78 00	21 00	8,700 00
32		25	20	5	25	-	60	10	1 75	-	89 00	26 00	6,200 00
33		20	12	8	20	-	60	8 ¹ / ₂	1 75	-	-	-	2,325 00
34		60	50	10	60	-	60	10	3 50	1 75	91 00	32 00	-
35		7	-	-	7	-	60	10	3 25	-	71 50	-	-

DIVISION III.—FURNITURE, ETC.

SUBDIVISION 1.—*Cabinet Making.*

A good deal of this business is done in Essex County. One firm classes all employed (28) as cabinet makers, at average weekly wages of \$16; highest and lowest per month, \$80 and \$48. Another classifies its labor as mill hands and cabinet-makers, the former earning \$13.75 and the latter \$18 per week; earnings per month, from \$84 to \$12; average pay per day to each person employed, \$2.10. A third firm, employing 19 persons, has 10 cabinet makers, 4 mill hands, 3 carvers, and 2 finishers; wages per day from \$2.50 to \$2, and per month, from \$90 to \$30; average pay per day to each employé, \$1.75. A third reports the earnings of cabinet makers, per month, as from \$72 to \$30, carvers \$80 to \$54, mill hands \$65 to \$16, and finishers \$60 to \$44; cabinet makers work by the piece, and carvers, millmen and finishers by the hour; average pay per day of each person employed, \$1.44. Hours of labor in all these returns not more than 60, often less per week.

A firm in Suffolk County employing 18 men pays cabinet makers \$20 and carvers \$25 a week; average pay per day to each person employed, \$2.40; hours of labor, 59. Another firm reports upon the hours of labor as follows: cabinet makers and carvers work 54 hours, machine hands, furniture polishers, and packers 59, engineers and teamsters 60 per week.

SUBDIVISION 2.—*Chairs.*

A custom-chair manufacturer in Boston employs 8 men, and pays them \$2 50 per day.

A manufacturer in Essex County, who employs 3 men, says they earn an average of \$43.75 per month.

The great centre of the business, so far as manufacturing is concerned, is in the northern part of Worcester County. From that section we have 11 returns.

In the business there, both factory and home work is found, those employed in the factories being mostly men, and those at home, women and children.

The wages of men in the factories is from \$2.50 to \$2, perhaps \$2.25 as an average, foremen receiving as high as \$4 per day, and laborers \$2 and \$1.75; their earnings per month are reported as from \$100 to \$22.30. Very few of the returns

give any other classification than chair-makers, chair-seaters and laborers. The one most complete in its specifications is as follows:—

No. of Persons in each Class.	OCCUPATION.	Average wages per Month.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
3	Rounding stock,	\$50 00	\$60 00	\$40 00
3	Turning stock,	60 00	75 00	40 00
4	Frame-fitters,	45 00	55 00	30 00
3	Jiggers,	70 00	75 00	65 00
10	Finishers,	75 00	100 00	60 00
2	Bench saw-men,	40 00	40 00	40 00
10	Setting up chairs,	65 00	75 00	50 00
2	Teamsters,	45 00	45 00	45 00
8	Common laborers,	45 00	45 00	45 00

One firm speaks of having been two months engaged in repairing, during which time employes had little to do. It would seem that a very considerable portion of the factory employes work by the piece. A turner who is middle-aged and who works steadily by the piece, earns per month from \$65.86 to \$47.51. Nearly every report gives the hours of labor as 60; there are slight fluctuations both ways, but these figures represent the average.

The outside workers weave the cane into the seats, and are called seaters. The work is carried out and returned by the manufacturers. The price paid per seat is reported by a large manufacturer as 12½ cents, three chairs being considered a day's work for children from 9 to 13 years old; another says that both women and children average 37½ cents a day. An employer hiring 16 regular seaters gives their average, per diem, as 87 cents; another as 67 cents. In one report the number of out-workers is given as 200, in a total of 328 employed; in another the ratio is as 300 to 225. One manufacturer, with 40 men employed, says his outside work goes into 200 families, and that for this work he paid, during the six months commencing the year, \$5,000, an average to each family of \$25, or \$50 a year; another sent his work into 46 families, and paid for it in the same length of time \$1,042.82, an average to each family of \$22.67, or \$45.34 per year.

The percentage of foreign labor in the chair factories is noticeably small.

SUBDIVISION 3.—*Furniture.*

A firm in Franklin County employs 22 men, all native but 1, 10 of them machine workers, 7 engaged in setting up furniture, 3 as painters and finishers, 1 helper and 1 watchman; nearly all working by the piece and earning from \$85 to \$25 per month.

Out of 21 men employed by a manufacturer in Middlesex County, 13 work by the piece; earnings per month from \$68 to \$36; average pay per day of each man employed, \$1.33. Another classifies 30 men as machine hands, carvers, sand-paperers, and bench hands; earnings, per month, from \$100 to \$12; average pay per day of each person employed, \$1.60. A third, without classification, gives average wages per day as \$1.25; average pay per day of each person employed, \$1.47. A fourth pays 36 persons from \$24 to \$5 per week; average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.77.

A firm in Norfolk County, employing 58 persons, pays them per month from \$100 to \$17.33; average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.22.

An employer in Worcester County has 50 men engaged in the manufacture of chamber furniture, whose average pay per day is \$1.89.

A firm manufacturing in Suffolk County, and employing 170 persons, pays an average of \$14 per week; average pay per day to each person, \$2.02. Another pays his men \$18, and apprentices \$4 a week. A third pays 75 persons per week, highest, lowest, and average, \$40, \$3 and \$14.50, the average pay per day being \$2.44. A fourth pays 28 persons, per month, from \$84 to \$20, with average pay per day of \$1.89.

A firm engaged in finishing school-furniture pays \$3 and \$2 per day, with earnings for six months from \$432 (a grainer) to \$192 (a painter), and an average pay per day of \$2.15; hours of labor, 60 in summer and 48 in winter.

A school-furniture manufacturer classifies his employes as superintendent, foremen, cabinet makers, varnishers, sawyers, turners, chair makers, fireman, engineer, machinists, laborers,

teamsters and watchmen ; wages, per week, from \$40 to \$10 ; women, \$5 to \$4.

An upholstering firm pays its men \$17, women \$7, and young persons \$5 per week ; hours of labor, 54.

A manufacturing firm in Boston employs 89 persons—67 men, 14 women and 8 young persons ; the general classification being gilders, furniture finishers, mattress-makers, upholsterers, cabinet-makers, draperies and general sewing, packers and porters, and clerks and salesmen ; average wages—men \$1 to \$2, women \$1.44 to \$1, young persons, \$1 to 67 cents ; earnings for six months, highest and lowest, men \$1,000 to \$150, women \$500 to \$125, young persons \$125 to \$87.50 ; average pay per day of each person, \$2 ; hours of labor, 58½.

Hours of labor in this manufacture, 60, in nearly all cases ; the larger share of workers native.

SUBDIVISION 4.—*Musical Instruments.*

A melodeon maker employing 13 men, all native, pays from \$8.50 to \$1.25 per day, the average pay per day to each person being \$3.40. Another, employing 10 men, all native, pays an average per man of \$2.50.

An organ maker employing 2 men, pays each \$7 per day, and employs 11 months in the year.

A piano-leg and case maker employing 30 men, pays from \$2.75 to \$1.75 per day, and from \$80 to \$35 per month ; average pay per day to each person, \$1.71. Another piano-case maker hires 17 men, classified as veneerers, skeleton makers, sawyers and jobbers, at an average of \$2.50 per day.

One large pianoforte maker reports the annual earnings of employes as \$1,120. Another reports average wages of 25 men as \$25 per week, all of them working by the piece or job, the case, key, and action-making being done by contract and by other parties ; hours of labor, 90 per week ; one woman employed as book-keeper at \$10 per week. Still another manufacturer gives particulars as to number, occupation, wages and hours, as follows :—

Number.	OCCUPATION.	Wages per week.	Hours of Labor per day.
3	Sound-board makers,	\$25 00	12
12	Varnishers and polishers,	20 00	9
8	Finishers,	18 00	8
5	Regulators,	16 00	8
1	Tone regulator,	18 00	10
2	Stringing pianos,	18 00	9
2	Tuning,	15 00	9
6	Top makers,	15 00	10
3	Trimmers,	15 00	9
2	Bronzing plates,	20 00	9
2	Packing, etc.,	14 00	10
2	Book-keeper and salesman,	20 00	9

Following, herewith, is a general table inclusive of Division III., Class V.:—

MECHANICAL TABLE No. II.—Wages, etc.

No. of Blank.	BUSINESS.	Number of Employes.	Native.	Foreign.	Hours of labor per week.	Hours Satur- day.	WAGES PER DAY.		WAGES PER MONTH.		Total am't paid from Jan. 1, to July 1, 1870.
							Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	
36	Cabinet makers,	22	21	1	-	-	\$3 00	-	\$75 00	-	\$5,195 50
37		19	19	-	60	10	2 50	\$2 12	91 00	\$30 00	4,253 00
38		13	7	6	60	10	2 23	-	84 00	12 00	5,070 34
39		28	16	12	60	10	2 66	-	80 00	48 00	6,737 00
40		18	2	16	59	9	4 16	3 33	100-00	75 00	8,452 00
41		40	16	24	66	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	2 00	1 83	-	-	
42	Chairs,	22	22	-	60	-	2 00	-	100 00	30 00	6,000 00
43		225	200	25	60	10	2 25	-	78 00	39 00	5,400 00
44		128	-	-	-	-	2 25	-	78 00	39 00	
45		14	14	-	60	-	1 62	-	65 86	16 10	3,654 35
46		40	33	7	60	10	2 50	-	78 00	52 00	2,500 00
47		6	6	-	60	10	2 40	-	75 00	50 00	2,100 00
48		25	25	-	60	10	2 25	-	104 00	45 00	6,206 00
49		35	20	15	60	10	2 25	-	70 00	35 00	4,500 00
50		3	3	-	54	-	1 63	-	43 75	-	787 60
51		20	-	-	59	9	2 33	-	-	-	3,648 25
52		45	42	3	60	10	2 22	-	100 00	30 00	13,500 00
53		51	45	6	60	10	2 25	-	100 00	25 00	17,589 00
54	Furniture,.	170	128	42	59	9	2 33	-	95 00	78 00	53,500 00
55		9	4	5	48	8	2 40	-	144 00	30 00	3,000 00
56		75	-	-	60	9	2 41	-	104 00	-	28,600 00
57		17	17	-	60	10	2 50	-	-	-	6,240 00

58	Furniture—Con,	20	12	8	60	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	\$2 25	-	-	-	\$4 00	\$17 33	\$4,591 00
59		28	18	10	60	-	-	-	-	-	\$84 00	\$17 33	8,261 00
60		30	20	10	60	10	2 15	-	-	-	100 00	12 00	7,500 00
61		58	32	26	60	10	2 00	-	-	-	100 00	11 33	11,079 00
62		50	50	-	60	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14,762 03
63		20	20	-	-	-	2 00	-	-	-	80 00	16 00	4,500 00
64		30	28	2	59	9	2 75	\$1 75	-	-	80 00	35 00	8,000 00
65		21	18	3	61	9	2 25	2 17	-	-	68 00	36 00	4,253 00
66		89	66	23	58 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	4 08	2 07	-	-	166 00	30 00	27,726 67
67		36	15	21	59	9	1 62	-	-	-	108 00	22 50	10,000 00
		1,407	919	265	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$287,599 74

NOTE.—For other particulars, see the several Subdivisions, pp. 355 to 358. For average of these 67 returns, see p. 362, at top.

The average pay per day of each person employed in the 67 factories tabulated, is shown to be \$1.31.

An examination of 78 returns, and embracing wood-workers only, shows the number employed to be 2,600.

Number reported as unable to read and write, 44.

Hours of labor per week 60, with exceptions as follows: 72 hours, one establishment; 66, three; 65, one; 61, one; 59, seven; $58\frac{1}{3}$, one; 58, one; 57, one; 54, three; 53, one; and 48, one.

Saturday time, 10 hours, with exceptions as follows: 11 hours, one; $9\frac{3}{4}$, two; 9, nine; $8\frac{3}{4}$, one; $8\frac{1}{2}$, two; and 8, three.

Dinner-time 60 minutes, with seven exceptions, five giving 45, one 50 and one 40 minutes.

Average pay per day of each person employed, \$1.37.

DIVISION IV.—METAL WORK.

The following tables consolidate the main information obtained for Division IV., a separate table being required for Subdivision 10 (tools and cutlery), on account of the difference in classification:—

MECHANICAL TABLE No. III.—*Wages, etc.*

No. of Blank.	BUSINESS.	Number of Em- ployes.	Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.							Total am't paid from Jan. 1 to July 1, 1870.			
							Foreman.	Engineer.	Laborer.	Moulder.	Apprentice.	Foundry Men.	Pattern Maker.		Machinist.	Blacksmith.	
1	Agricultural tools, .	45	18	27	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	\$2 11	\$13,018 00
2		50	36	14	—	—	—	\$4 50	2 50	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 00	19,002 00
3		157	—	—	—	—	—	3 75	—	—	—	\$1 12	—	—	—	2 50	—
4		288	—	—	—	—	—	3 00	—	—	—	1 25	—	—	—	—	—
5		75	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
6		52	22	27	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 40	2 50	33,920 74
7	Anchors, . . .	107	40	67	93	14	—	—	—	—	—	1 06	—	—	2 70	—	37,357 30
8		11	4	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 31	3 25	3,547 15
9	Boiler makers, .	15	3	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,504 67
10		37	15	22	—	—	—	—	1 75	—	—	—	—	—	2 00	—	8,472 46
11		20	7	13	—	—	—	—	1 66	—	—	—	—	—	2 50	—	8,552 66
12	Brass, bronze and cop- per, . . .	68	38	30	—	—	—	—	—	1 62	—	—	—	—	1 73	—	15,693 31
13		66	10	56	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 89	—	18,350 00
14		275	183	92	6	4	—	4 00	—	—	—	1 00	2 50	00	3 35	—	72,000 00
15		10	7	3	9	2	—	—	—	—	—	1 00	3 00	—	—	—	3,432 00
16		11	10	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 25	—	—	2 42	—	2,765 97
17		24	5	19	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 05	—	5,923 16
18		27	10	17	18	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 25	—	7,798 21
19		Foundry and castings, .	843	115	718	718	66	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 17	—	540,000 00
20	15		—	—	12	3	—	—	1 50	2 50	1 00	—	—	—	—	—	2,910 78
21	76		—	—	68	8	—	—	1 08	2 83	1 00	—	3 00	2 91	2 00	—	—
22	Wire goods, . . .	65	25	40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 83	—	9,488 27
23		20	18	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4 62	—	1,592 67

MECHANICAL TABLE NO. III.—Wages, etc.—Continued.

No. of Blank.	BUSINESS.	Number of Km- pyles.	Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.							Total amt paid from Jan. 1 to July 1, 1870.			
							Foreman.	Engineer.	Laborer.	Moulder.	Appr'nice.	Foundry Men.	Pattern Maker.		Machinist.	Bl'ksmith.	
24	} Foundry, . . . }	27	18	9	-	-	-	\$3 50	\$1 60	\$2 75	\$1 00	-	\$2 75	\$2 50	-	\$7,200 00	
25		14	12	2	-	-	-	-	-	2 75	-	-	-	2 00	-	21,550 00	
26	Bells, . . .	82	37	45	75	7	-	-	-	-	1 00	-	-	2 00	-	20,301 08	
27	} Stove castings, . . }	14	11	3	-	-	-	4 50	1 75	3 50	-	-	-	-	-	3,000 00	
28		50	30	20	46	4	2 00	\$2 00	1 75	3 90	1 50	-	2 75	2 81	\$2 00	-	
29	} Iron, . . . }	80	20	60	-	-	2 00	2 75	1 62	-	-	-	-	2 45	-	20,821 26	
30		34	10	24	-	-	-	2 25	1 70	2 75	-	-	-	2 48	-	-	
31		24	13	11	22	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3 00	-	11,232 00	
32	} Foundry, . . . }	32	12	20	28	4	8 33	2 25	-	-	1 25	\$1 75	-	3 00	3 37	11,885 31	
33		69	19	50	-	-	6 00	2 50	1 50	-	-	50	-	2 08	2 25	-	
34		100	12	18	77	23	-	-	1 66	2 25	-	-	3 00	-	-	30,000 00	
35		50	35	15	-	-	4 80	2 75	2 00	2 75	-	-	-	-	-	20,937 57	
36		121	62	121	-	-	3 53	2 88	1 45	3 50	-	-	2 68	2 75	-	29,598 00	
37		} Foundry, . . . }	29	25	4	-	-	3 00	2 00	1 50	2 50	50	-	-	2 75	2 25	8,000 00
38			27	25	2	26	1	3 00	2 00	1 50	2 50	-	1 75	-	2 75	2 00	6,000 00
39			148	8	140	-	-	2 00	2 00	-	2 50	-	-	2 37	2 12	2 25	-
40			30	15	15	-	-	3 00	-	-	1 75	-	-	-	-	-	-
41		} Forge, . . . }	80	25	55	-	-	3 00	-	-	2 25	-	-	1 85	-	-	3,557 84
42	14		13	1	-	-	-	-	-	2 25	-	1 80	-	-	-	6,581 89	
43	26		6	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,586 00
44	12	10	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2 33	-	-	-	-	
45	} Foundry, . . . }	31	-	-	-	-	-	2 00	-	2 60	1 17	-	-	2 34	-	9,800 00	
46		55	47	8	-	-	3 08	2 25	-	2 75	1 00	-	2 75	3 03	3 00	13,686 00	
47		15	9	6	-	-	-	-	1 68	2 52	-	-	-	-	-	-	6,468 93

[illegible]

MECHANICAL TABLE No. III.—Wages, etc.—Concluded.

No. of Blank.	BUSINESS.	Number of Em- ployes.	Native.	Foreign.	Men.	Young Persons.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.								Total am't paid from Jan. 1 to July 1, 1870.
							Foreman.	Engineer.	Laborer.	Moulder.	Appr'ntice.	Foundry Men.	Pattern Maker.	Machinist.	
84	Cotton gins, . . .	71	66	5	69	-	-	\$2 00	\$1 67	-	\$2 25	-	\$2 69	-	\$23,139 94
85	Iron works, . . .	70	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2 87	-	
86	Tacks and nails, . . .	250	83	167	-	16	\$2 75	-	1 53	\$2 00	-	-	2 25	-	35,660 99
87		45	42	3	20	-	-	2 00	1 77	-	-	-	2 48	-	8,734 59
88		300	-	300	-	-	-	1 10	1 62	4 50	4 00	-	2 53	\$1 75	85,131 42
89		36	18	18	-	-	-	1 73	-	-	-	-	2 22	2 50	12,863 26
90		85	87	98	-	-	-	-	1 67	-	\$1 00	-	2 08	3 50	51,850 79
91		300	200	100	200	20	-	-	1 50	-	-	-	2 87	-	7,500 00
92		50	44	6	33	35	-	2 25	-	2 00	75	-	2 00	4 00	14,701 00
93	75	75	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 50	2 21	-	133,617 89	
94	Tin and sheet iron, . . .	520	-	-	95	30	-	-	2 00	-	75	2 25	-	-	
95		165	145	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
96		17	-	-	14	3	-	-	2 33	-	1 00	-	-	3 00	
97		138	121	17	-	-	-	1 25	-	-	-	2 31	2 37	-	30,136 76
		10,716	6,573	3,398	2,300	649	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$3,056,025 63

Average amount paid per day to each person employed, \$2 18

SUBDIVISION 1.—*Agricultural Implements.*

A company employing 45 men pays earnings, per month, from \$78 to \$39; average pay per day of each person employed, \$1.85; hours of labor, 60; unable to read and write, 8. The agent makes the following statement:—

“We have been running 19 years. Three men have been in our employ more than 17 years. One, a Frenchman in charge of the wood-room, has always received the highest wages (from 87 cents, in 1853, to \$3 per day now), and has saved over \$2,000. He has a family of five children, the eldest 16 years and the youngest 4 years old. All of them have attended school, and none have ever earned anything. One of our highest paid native workmen, who has been employed the same time and at the same wages, has rather lost than gained pecuniarily. Reason of difference: habits of living, both being sober and industrious. Twenty-two men have been with us more than five years, and eleven more than 8 years. Our policy is to get good men and then keep them. Four only are intemperate, three of them Irish. We often find that a foreigner will make his mark when he is able to write his name. Many of them learn to read and write after they have become men.”

Another manufacturer, employing 6 men, pays \$2.75 and \$2.10 per day, and \$80 to \$36 a month; hours of labor, 60.

Two returns are from manufacturers of mowing-machine knives, employing 52 and 50 men; most of the work is done by the piece, and through contractors; wages per day are from \$4.50 to \$1.75; earnings per month, \$125 to \$30; average pay per day of each person employed, \$3.33; one establishment gives the number of persons employed as varying from 50 to 100; hours of labor, 60; unable to read and write, 1; subdivision of employment—blacksmiths, temperers, grinders, machinists, polishers, carpenters, firemen, laborers, clerk and engineer.

A shovel manufacturing firm in Bristol County employs 522 persons, some of them boys, and about 50 per cent. native born; hours of labor per week, 59; wages of men, from \$5 to \$1.50; of young persons, from \$1.50 to 75 cents; there are 48 subdivisions in the work. Of the 522 persons, 59 receive from \$5 to \$3 a day; 301 receive from \$3 to \$2; and 162 receive less than \$2 a day.

SUBDIVISION 2.—*Anchors.*

But little business is now done in anchor-making. The principal firm making return, classifies its employés as blacksmiths, hammerer, heater, helpers and clerk, the hammerer earning the highest wages; earnings of employés per month, \$114 to \$25; work furnished from four to six months per year, commencing in October or November, and lasting until March; hours of labor, 59.

A manufacturer in Plymouth County reports little doing, but the average day wages of anchor-smiths is \$2.33; highest and lowest month earnings, \$150 and \$39.

SUBDIVISION 3.—*Boilers.*

Three returns give 72 persons employed. One reports average wages per day as \$2.37½, with earnings per month from \$66 to \$6. Another reports two classes employed, boiler-makers and laborers, the former receiving \$2.50 and the latter \$1.67 per day; unable to read and write, 29. A third reports four classes, with wages as follows: boiler-makers \$2.50, helpers \$2, laborers \$1.75, and rivet-heaters \$1.50; two are young persons; average lost time of employés, one day per month.

Hours of labor in the three establishments, 59 per week.

SUBDIVISION 4.—*Brass and Copper.*

The returns relating to brass-work are all from Boston and its immediate vicinity, though some additional information will be found in the miscellaneous employment tables. Sometimes the work in these is complicated with that in other metals. Machinists receive an average of \$3 a day, earning from \$120 to \$40 per month; brass-finishers earn from \$4 to \$2.25 per day, the average being about \$2.50, the earnings per month being from \$75 to \$40; men at general work, with no special trades, average less than \$2 a day; girls and women earn from \$1.50 to 67 cents per day, and from \$24 to \$12 per month; bell-hangers, \$2.80 to \$1.25 per day; brass-casters, \$2.67; young persons, \$1.67 to \$1.37; brass-founders, \$2.39; pipe-fitters, \$2.42; brass-moulders, \$2.75. Hours of labor, 59 and 60; 4 reported unable to read and write.

The wages of coppersmiths in Boston are reported as \$3.50

per day. A copper manufacturing company employing 68 persons, reports earnings per month, highest, lowest and average, as \$108.50, \$30 and \$45.15; hours of labor per week, 61; unable to read and write, 11. Another company, employing 64 persons, classes them as mechanics, furnace-men, rollers, mill hands, firemen, casters, and yard hands; earnings per month, from \$78 to \$30; averages per day, \$2.50, \$1.87, \$1.75, \$1.62, \$1.55, and \$1.44; most of the men hired by the year; unable to read and write, 30; a great majority of the employes of the company are from Ireland or the British Provinces. Hours of labor in both cases, 60.

A manufacturing corporation, doing a varied business in metal-work, and employing 275 persons, classifies them as follows: 75 workers on plated ware and swords, from \$5 to \$2.50 per day; 113 machinists, \$3 to \$2; 30 founders, \$3 to \$1.50; 12 brass and bronze workers, \$4 to \$2; 3 chasers, \$5; 12 pattern-makers, \$3.50 to \$2; 10 boys, \$1.50 to 75 cents; 8 foremen, \$133.33 to \$100 per month; 2 watchmen, \$2.75 per day; 5 teamsters, \$2; 5 women, \$1.50 to \$1; hours of labor, 60; ratio of native to foreign, 183 to 92; number employed fluctuating.

A weather-vane manufacturer employs 3 persons at earnings for six months from \$408 to \$55, with average per day to each person employed of \$1.65.

A bell manufacturer, employing 75 men and 7 young persons, pays the former \$2 and the latter \$1 per day, average; earnings for six months, highest and lowest, men \$600 to \$225, and young persons \$150 to \$90; unable to read and write, 8.

SUBDIVISION 5.—*Files.*

File-cutters in Boston earn from \$70 to \$50 and young persons from \$25 to \$16 per month; hours of labor, 59. The largest establishments in the State have made no returns.

SUBDIVISION 6.—*Foundries.*

Nine counties represented: Barnstable, Berkshire, Bristol, Essex, Middlesex, Norfolk, Plymouth, Suffolk and Worcester.

A return from a foundry in Barnstable County enumerates moulders, apprentices and laborers, at wages respectively of \$2.50, \$1 and \$1.50, with work irregular, the number employed

varying with every month; hours of labor, 54. Another includes machinists, and reports average day wages as \$2.37; hours of labor, 59. A foundry in Essex County, employing 26, reports the average earnings per day of all employed as \$1.80; highest and lowest monthly earnings, \$75 and \$18.75; unable to read and write, 3; hours of labor, 60. A company in Middlesex County reports average wages per day \$1.75; 80 employed, of whom 55 are foreign; 20 unable to read and write; hours of labor, 60 and less. A firm in Worcester County, employing 21 persons, pays an average of \$50 per month; hours of labor, 60. Two Plymouth County foundries, employing 15 and 19 persons, pay moulders \$3 and \$2, laborers \$1.75, apprentices \$1, melter \$2.50, core-maker \$1.50, and miscellaneous labor \$2.50; hours of labor, 60 and 48. A similar foundry in Suffolk County pays moulders \$2.50, melters \$2.25, and common labor, \$1.67; another, similarly located, pays about the same wages, the average of moulders being \$2.37, core-makers \$1.67, melters \$3, and laborers \$1.70; hours of labor, 60 and 54.

A firm in Suffolk County, returning its 20 employés as iron-workers, pays an average of \$2 75 per day. Another, classing all as iron manufacturers, pays an average of \$2.21 to men and 75 cents to young persons; hours of labor, 59 and 60.

Two malleable iron companies make returns, one employing 100 and another 50 persons; hours of labor in one 60, in the other 60 in summer and 54 in winter; unable to read and write, 15; 79 of the 150 are moulders, the rest being classified as laborers, core-boys, apprentices, foremen, packers, pattern-makers and repairers, machinists, engineers, picklers and washers, weighers and melters; 47 native and 103 foreign; wages in one establishment, highest, lowest and average, are \$5.75, \$1.75 and \$2.75; and in the other from \$3 to 50 cents per day, and \$125 to \$8 per month.

In Berkshire there are a number of charcoal furnaces carried on in connection with ore-beds in the immediate vicinity. One of them has been in operation for a century, and employs 15 men,—a founder, coal-forker, banksman, two firemen, stackmen and topmen, and six laborers; hours of labor, 10 for common laborers, 12 for others; earnings per month, \$100 to \$50;

price of tenements, \$50 per year. Another extensive iron corporation employs directly 140 men and 8 young persons,—5 engineers, 4 blacksmiths, 1 wheelwright, 2 foremen, 2 charcoal-burners, 22 furnace men, 90 ore-bed and 22 other laborers; only 14 earn \$2 and over, the rest receive \$1.75 and \$1.50 per day, much the larger number having but \$1.50; all are foreign but 8, and 100 are unable to read and write; hours of labor, 72; board, \$4 per week; business complicated and scattered through a number of towns; twelve or fifteen hundred employed directly in them all; average earnings per year, \$500; employes paid on 15th of month, in cash and rents; 60 tenement-houses occupied by 65 families, most of the houses renting for \$20 and \$25 per year; the usual number of rooms is three, and most of them are rough built, unpainted and quite bare of furniture; men have been employed from one to thirty years; they are not much interested in anything but their work; are sending their children to school more and more every year; Irishmen first interest themselves in getting a place, and they will then gradually leave off furnace work and go to farming; business healthy, except ore-bed work, which promotes rheumatic affections; charcoal-makers cut the wood on their own land, burn it, and then bring it in from a distance of from five to eighteen miles, selling it at the furnace as it comes from the wagon at \$12 per hundred bushels; ore-men work by the job a good deal. A company making anthracite pig-iron in the same neighborhood employs 69 men, 50 foreign born and 3 young persons, and classified as foreman, carpenter, weigher, blacksmiths, engineers, laborers, furnace-men and miners, nearly all receiving \$1.75 and \$1.50 per day; some ore-beds are run under contract; pay day on 15th of month; 14 tenements rented at \$3 per month; business dull and sensitive to tariff changes.

A forge company employing 32 persons classifies them as follows: 2 officers and 1 clerk, 1 engineer, 2 blacksmiths, 3 heaters, 3 hammermen, and 20 helpers; pay per day of officers \$8.33, helpers \$1.87, blacksmiths and heaters \$3, and hammermen \$4; earnings of manual laborers for six months \$741 to \$150, highest and lowest; hours of labor, 59; unable to read and write, 2.

Two returns are from foundries connected with rolling mills. One company employs 187 men,—15 foundrymen, with average per day of \$2.25, 33 in machine-shop at \$2.54, 9 forgers at \$3.26, 3 carpenters at \$2.92, 14 laborers at \$1.65, and 113 in rolling mill at \$2.50; highest and lowest monthly earnings \$162 and \$39; unable to read and write, 45; hours of labor, 66 from April 16 to October 15, and 60 from October 15 to April 15.

An iron mill corporation employing 80 men classifies and pays per day as follows: 2 machinists and 2 carpenters \$2.50, 2 engineers \$2.75, 4 heaters \$3.50, 8 firemen \$2, 21 rollers \$2.25, 10 benders \$1.50, 20 laborers \$1.62, and 1 boss roller \$10; average working days per month, 20; hours of labor, 60; unable to read and write, 5 native and 15 foreign. Another company, employing 163 persons, has 4 apprentices; steady employment given; machinists average \$2.92, machinists' helpers \$1.71, pattern-makers \$2.84, smiths \$2.89, smiths' helpers \$1.75, moulders \$2.67, furnace men \$2.26, helpers \$1.64, ware-dressers \$1.70, draughtsman \$4, and foremen \$4.60 per day. A third company reports average wages per day from \$3 08 to \$1, with earnings per month from \$100 to \$13; sometimes a moulder at job work earns as much as \$140 in a month, but to do it works at night a good deal; night or Sunday work not encouraged; hours of labor, 59; unable to read and write, 3. A fourth return gives the average time employed per year in each class as follows: moulders 276 days, carpenters 295, pattern-makers 244, machinists 306, blacksmiths 197, laborers 282, apprentices 292, engineers 310.

Six returns were received from stove foundries in Bristol County. The averages given on these are as follows: Moulders, \$2.25, \$2.75, \$3 and \$3.50; laborers, \$1.75 and \$2; foremen, \$3, \$3.50, \$4.50 and \$5; stove mounters, \$2, \$2.75 and \$3; ware dressers, \$1.67; melters, \$2; clerks, \$2; machinists, \$2.25, \$2.75 and \$3; engineers, \$2; apprentices, \$1.50 and \$1; carpenters, \$2.75, and pipe welders, \$2.75. One reports 48, and the rest 60 hours per week; payments are made monthly, fortnightly and weekly; in some of the towns many workmen own places; 20 unable to read and write; more than half work by the piece.

At a stove foundry in Worcester County moulders' monthly earnings are from \$106.72 to \$60.75.

A company in Suffolk County employing 106 men, all native but 23, pays 75 by the piece, runs 53 hours per week, and returns statistics, as follows:—

No. of Persons in each Class.	O C C U P A T I O N .	Average Wages.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
52, . .	Moulders,	\$4 32	\$180 00	\$78 00
15, . .	Setting up castings, . .	3 88	108 00	52 00
3, . .	Pattern makers, . . .	4 00	125 00	78 00
2, . .	Pattern finishers, . . .	3 12	104 00	65 00
8, . .	Casting dressers, . . .	5 00	130 00	52 00
2, . .	Carpenters,	3 00	78 00	78 00
1, . .	Machinist,	3 00	78 00	78 00
1, . .	Engineer,	2 50	65 00	65 00
5, . .	Packers and shippers, . .	2 00	52 00	52 00
12, . .	Laborers,	2 00	52 00	52 00
1, . .	Teamster,	2 00	52 00	52 00
2, . .	Watchmen,	2 50	65 00	65 00
2, . .	Clerks,	3 75	83 33	80 00

Six returns from foundry and machine companies in four counties give the following averages: boys, 50 cents; apprentices, \$1; teamsters, \$1.37 and \$1.67; laborers and helpers, \$1.50, \$1.60, \$1.65 and \$1.75; engineers and firemen, \$2; blacksmiths, \$2.25 and \$2.50; moulders, \$2.25, \$2.50 and \$2.75; pattern makers, \$2.37, \$2.75 and \$3.50; turners, \$2.50; machinists, \$2.50 and \$2.75; millwrights, \$2.75; forgers, \$2.75; foremen, \$3 and \$4.80; unable to read and write, 23; paid to apprentices for the three years, \$65, \$85 and \$90; hours of labor 59 and 60, one shop in Winchendon working 66 hours; native in excess of foreign labor; most of employers pay monthly and on the 15th; in the smaller places a liberal number own their own homes, in one or two cases the percentage being as high as 50.

A company in Hampden County returns average wages as follows: Machine shop, \$1.20; foundry, \$1.89; laborers, \$1.23; wood-workers, \$2.90; blacksmiths, \$2.37; strikers, \$1.29; office and supervision, \$4.60; variation in number employed, 97 to 125; unable to write, 14. A firm in Essex County pays machinists and helpers an average of \$1.86, moulders and

helpers \$1.97 $\frac{1}{3}$, card-makers and helpers \$2.05; number employed 272, and employing capacity 500.

SUBDIVISION 7.—*Machinery.*

Eleven returns received, giving no other classification than machinists, with one exception, report the hours of labor as 59, and only 3 unable to read and write; average wages, per day, \$1.75, \$2.50, \$2.75, and \$3; highest and lowest earnings, per month, \$110 and \$22; apprentices, \$8 and \$6 per week; average amount paid per day to each person employed, \$2.17.

One of the best appointed machine shops in the State, whose pay-roll amounts to \$18,000 a month, reports numbers, employment, and average day wages, as follows:—

TABLE I.

Number.	OCCUPATION.	Av'ge Wages per Day.
10,	Foremen,	\$5 00
30,	First class machinists,	3 50
43,	Second class machinists,	3 00
54,	Third class machinists,	2 75
20,	Helpers,	1 50
8,	Apprentices,	1 30
10,	First class iron moulders,	3 50
15,	Second class iron moulders,	3 25
5,	Third class iron moulders,	3 00
15,	Helpers,	1 50
1,	Apprentice,	1 30
1,	First class brass moulder,	3 25
1,	Second class brass moulder,	3 00
4,	First class pattern makers,	3 50
2,	Second class pattern makers,	3 25
1,	Apprentice,	1 30
4,	First class forgers,	3 50
3,	Second class forgers,	3 25
2,	Third class forgers,	3 00
8,	Strikers,	1 75
4,	First class box and flask makers,	3 00
3,	Second class box and flask makers,	1 75
4,	Scratchers,	1 60
4,	Laborers,	1 60
2,	Teamsters,	2 00
4,	Painters,	2 75
4,	Steel tool room men,	3 25
1,	Apprentice,	1 30
1,	Oiler,	2 00
1,	Engineer,	2 50
1,	Watchmen,	2 25
4,	Clerks,	5 00

Hours of labor, 60; unable to read and write, 12; no contract work, and only 15 at work by the piece; but two tenements rented; lost time of employes averages two days a month; payments on the 10th of month to preceding 1st.

A corporation employing on a very large scale, having 750 at work, with capacity for 1,000, makes this return:—

TABLE II.

No. of Persons in each Class.	O C C U P A T I O N .	Average Wages per Month.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
487, . .	Mechanics,	\$49 00	\$91 00	\$32 00
114, . .	Apprentices,	24 00	30 00	13 00
106, . .	Laborers,	36 00	58 00	24 00
24, . .	Contractors,	195 00	400 00	62 00
19, . .	{ Clerks, Overseers and Engineers, . . . }	94 00	191 00	26 00

Hours of labor, $64\frac{2}{3}$; dinner-time allowance, 50 minutes; unable to read and write, 99; native a little in excess of foreign; average amount paid per day to each person employed, \$1.92.

One return from Worcester County, reporting 100 employes, gives \$2.41 as average pay per day, a few men on jobs earning from \$5 to \$3.50 per day; earnings per month from \$91 to \$19.70; all native but 20; unable to read and write, 2. Another return, reporting 125 employes, gives average wages of 100 machinists at \$2.75; 15 laborers, \$1.50; 4 blacksmiths, \$3; 4 pattern makers, \$3; 1 each teamster and watchman, \$2, with an average per day to each person employed of \$1.90; all employes native but 25; unable to read and write, 4.

Miscellaneous.

A firm in Middlesex County employing 96 men—machinists, boiler-makers, and blacksmiths—pays an average per day of \$2.50, the highest and lowest being \$3.75 and \$1.75.

A manufacturer of iron-work for buildings pays an average of \$2 to 74 men, the highest and lowest per month being \$84 and \$36.

A manufacturer of steam-heating apparatus, employing 33 men, classed as machinists and steam-pipers, pays an average

per month of \$62.50. Another firm in a similar business pays steam-pipers an average of \$3 per day.

A firm manufacturing collar machinery pays its machinists an average of \$2.75.

Another, employing 41 persons in the manufacture of shoe machinery, pays machinists \$2.74, wire-twisters \$2, laborers \$2.20, and young persons \$1.25; earnings for six months, from \$760 to \$143.

A company making meat-choppers employs wood-workers, machinists, painters and a tin-man at average wages of \$2, the highest and lowest being \$3.25 and \$1.

A firm engaged in making looms, and employing 34 persons, pays per month, highest, lowest and average, \$101.60, \$21.62, and \$47.58.

An establishment engaged in the production of woollen machinery, and employing 84 men, pays an average of \$2.50 per day to blacksmiths and wood and iron workers, \$3 to accountants, and \$1.85 to laborers; the highest and lowest earnings per month are \$125 and \$20.

Two twist-drill companies make returns. One employs 15 persons at an average of \$2 per day, the highest and lowest earnings per month being \$75 and \$20, and hours of labor 61; the other, making, besides twist-drills, patent chucks, reamers, etc., employs 41 men, 4 women, and 15 young persons, the men classed as foremen, machinists and blacksmiths, and averaging \$3 per day, and the girls and women \$1, with hours of labor at 59, and an average payment to each person employed of \$1.52 per day.

Sewing Machines.

Three sewing machine returns received. One company employs 275 persons, all native but 75, and pays per month, highest, lowest and average, \$91, \$39 and \$72; average pay per day to each person employed, \$2.80; hours of labor, 59. Another employs 537 men, 80 young persons, and 15 children; ratio of native to foreign, 2 to 1; men working by the piece average per day \$3.22, day men, \$2.43; young persons by piece \$1.71, by day 83 cents; and children by piece 95 cents, and by day 62½ cents; earnings of men for six months, highest and lowest, \$784 and \$220; young persons \$177 and \$149, and children \$107 to \$90; hours of labor, 60; time for dinner, 45 minutes; unable

to read and write, 15 ; average amount paid per day to each person employed, \$1.81. In both these establishments the subdivisions of labor are not reported in detail. In the Florence establishment there are ten principal and twenty-six minor departments, nearly all the work being done by the piece and under contractors. Some of these divisions of labor are as follows: large and small part makers, machinists, platers, polishers, screw-makers, assemblers, inspectors, foundry-men, wood-workers, and packers. The nationality of workmen is in this order of numerical precedence: American, German, English and Irish. Much of the work requires great skill, but generally only a single part is mastered ; a new person coming in will confine himself wholly to one kind of work and remain at it for years. Everything is done on the premises ; prices arranged between agent and contractors ; overtime work paid on the regular basis ; pay day on the first Friday following the 15th of each month ; payments made in cash exclusively ; many of the men are getting homes of their own ; not 10 persons employed that cannot read and write, and nearly all are temperate ; employés have a military-dress band of 24 pieces. Company has 30 tenements, single cottages, painted differently, and having garden land attached ; rents from \$120 to \$80 a year.

Vises.

Two vise companies report. One has 20 employés,—15 machinists and 5 helpers and apprentices, the wages of the former being \$2.75 and \$2.25, and of the latter \$1.50 and \$1. The other employs 34 men, 1 woman (book-keeper), and 9 young persons, classified as machinists, emery-wheel grinder, pattern-maker, blacksmiths, iron-moulders, painter, brass-moulders, carpenters, laborers, engineer and watchman ; wages per day, from \$3 to \$1 ; earnings for six months, highest and lowest, men \$488 to \$120, and young persons \$232 to \$124 ; average amount per day paid to each person employed, \$1.11.

Locomotives.

Two returns received. Number of employés, 375 and 548 ; native and foreign in both, 453 and 470. Hours of labor, 60 and 60½. Unable to read and write, 85,—11 being native. Wages per day, \$4 to \$1.50. Average amount paid each per-

son per day, \$2 21. The following table gives the wages of a single establishment :—

No. of Persons in each Class.	O C C U P A T I O N .	Average Wages per Month.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
170, . .	Machinists,	\$45 93	\$130 00	\$30 00
67, . .	Boiler Makers,	48 52	208 00	26 00
28, . .	Moulders,	60 45	130 00	30 00
42, . .	Blacksmiths,	56 42	130 00	30 00
13, . .	Carpenters,	78 00	166 00	65 00
6, . .	Painters,	55 24	160 00	30 00
4, . .	Coppersmiths,	56 03	130 00	40 00
45, . .	Laborers,	41 16	48 00	40 00

The manager of one concern makes the following statement :

“Our works cover an area of 10 acres, and we sometimes employ 750 men in the manufacture of locomotives and cotton machinery. The larger part of the men are Irish; they are the poorest paid and most contented men we have. Owing to the number of apprentices employed, the percentage of those owning homes is less than it would be otherwise. No tenements are rented to our own laborers. The lost time of the men, on their own account, averages two days per month, and is most of it due to intemperance. Considerable work is done by contract on the premises, the contractor making his own terms with those working for him; but the names and wages of all appear on the company pay-rolls, the latter precaution being taken that we may know just how much our contractors are making. Our principal aim is to see that the work under the contract system shall cost no more, at least, than it would if we made the bargains and paid for the oversight ourselves. We don't intend that contractors shall make more than \$10 a day; probably none make less than \$5. The contractors' work is irregular, however, with few exceptions. We like the system very well. More work is done at the same money-cost, than by the other method. Many of the men are very ignorant. Don't think they belong to trade unions; they did once, but the union broke up. Can now do as we please with the men (!) Our wages are very nearly the same as during the war. We cut down once, but went back again, the claim being made that the men could not live on the reduction.”

SUBDIVISION 8.—*Nails and Tacks.*

Nails and tacks are principally made in Bristol and Plymouth Counties.

A company employing 70 persons, 48 in rolling-mill and 22 as nail-makers, reports wages as \$3 and \$2.75 per day for men, and \$1 and 92 cents for young persons ; average per day paid to each person employed, \$2.12. Another, employing 185 persons, classifies as follows: nailers, machine feeders, puddlers, puddlers' helpers, laborers, and blacksmiths and machinists; wages of nailers from \$3.50 to \$1.50 per day ; of the rest, 124 earn \$1.67 and \$1.50 ; average paid per day to each person employed, \$1.76. A company employing 250 persons, 20 of them nailers, pays per month from \$175 to \$25 ; much the greater number average \$40 a month ; average paid per day to each person employed, 91 cents. A corporation employing 510 persons, pays an average of \$1.68 per day to each person employed, and in detail reports as follows :—

Number in each Class.	O C C U P A T I O N .	Average Wages per Month.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
43, . .	Foundry,	\$10 00	\$96 75	\$35 00
15, . .	Gas Works,	50 00	75 00	45 00
26, . .	Team Labor,	40 00	52 00	39 00
19, . .	Common Labor,	40 00	52 00	39 00
38, . .	Boiler Works,	50 00	125 00	26 00
172, . .	Rolling Mill,	40 00	91 00	37 00
70, . .	Nailers,	60 00	125 00	40 00
58, . .	Nail Labor,	40 00	65 00	20 00
25, . .	Puddlers,	70 00	82 00	65 00
10, . .	Pilers,	50 00	58 00	42 00
6, . .	Rollers (job),	70 00	116 00	20 00
22, . .	Machinists,	60 00	150 00	33 00
6, . .	Carpenters,	70 00	78 00	65 00

The hours of labor are generally reported as 60 ; nailers and feeders from 48 to 55.

A boat-nail manufacturer works three months of the year, and pays \$2 a day for labor.

A company manufacturing horse-nails employs from 36 to 81 persons, classified as nailers, repair hands, welders, porters, smiths and helpers, machinists and sorters ; earnings per month from \$75 to \$30 ; 25 men out of work on account of the drought.

Seven returns received relating to tack manufacturing. Two manufacturers report less than 10 persons employed by each, with earnings per month from \$100 to \$12, the average in one case being \$60 and in the other \$27. A firm employing 50 persons, reports the average monthly wages as \$25 ; three-quarters of them male, and one-quarter female ; highest and lowest earnings per month, \$125 and \$10. Four other returns give the number employed as 585,—348 men, 131 women, 70 young persons, and 36 children. Largest number employed in one establishment (a corporation), 300 ; and they are classified as clerks, cutters, strippers, packers, laborers and boys. A firm employing 30 boys and 35 women reports 75 cents as their average daily earnings. Average amount paid per day to each person in two of the larger establishments, \$1.25. Hours of labor, 59 and 60 ; in the American Tack Company at Fairhaven, 55 hours.

Some further information in connection with this subdivision can be found by reference to pages 131–34.

SUBDIVISION 9.—*Tin and Sheet-Iron.*

A stamping company employing 138 persons, classified as follows: 24 tinsmiths, 6 machinists, 6 painters, 8 japanners, 3 galvanizers, 2 blacksmiths, 85 laborers and 4 tinnerns ; wages of tinnerns \$1 to \$2, tinsmiths \$3 to \$2, japanners \$4 to \$1, galvanizers \$3.50 to \$1.17, and laborers \$2.75 to 50 cents ; average paid per day to each person employed, \$1.41 ; employes all native but 17 ; hours of labor, 59. A tinware manufactory employs 5 persons, pays men \$2 17, women \$1, and young persons 62 cents ; earnings for six months,—men, \$520 to \$225 ; women, \$145 to \$135 ; and young persons, \$135 to \$75. An employer in Boston pays his japanners \$800 a year. A man-

ufacturer in Essex County pays his tin-workers from \$72 to \$24 a month. Tinsmiths and sheet-iron workers in Boston are usually paid \$3 per day. Further information in miscellaneous employment tables.

SUBDIVISION 10.—*Tools and Cutlery.*

Fifteen returns received, of which twelve are tabulated herewith :—

A manufacturer of augers and caulkers' tools, hiring 2 men, pays them \$50 a month.

A company which manufactures augers, auger bits, etc., pays forgers \$4 to \$3, twistors \$6 to \$3, filers and polishers \$3 to \$2, screw cutters \$4, laborers and boys \$1.75 to \$1; earnings per month, \$115 to \$30; skilled, experienced labor required; employment regular, except that this year nearly a month was lost from drought; all men native but three; all can read and write but 1, a native of Georgia; average amount paid per day to each person employed, \$1.86.

An axe manufacturing company in Worcester County has 310 employés, 6 of them young persons and 190 foreign, classified and paid as follows: 136 forgers, at average per day of \$2.87, and earnings for six months from \$705 to \$208; 63 grinders, at average per day of \$2.50, and earnings for six months from \$513 to \$229; 31 polishers, at average per day of \$2.62, and earnings for six months from \$527 to \$284; 16 temperers, at average per day of \$2.62, and earnings for six months from \$394 to \$298; 64 day workmen, at average per day of \$2, and earnings for six months from \$508 to \$230. Hours of labor, 54; average pay per day to each employé, \$1.90.

A hatchet manufacturer in Plymouth County hires 11 men at monthly wages of about \$50 each; average per day of each employé, \$1.82; hours of labor, 54.

There are two large cutlery establishments in Franklin County, both of them corporations, one employing 360 and the other 525 persons, of whom 330 are men, 30 women, 155 young persons, and 10 children. One company classifies only in a general way as forgers, grinders and finishers of blades, sawyers, handle-grinders and finishers, and miscellaneous, with average wages, respectively, at \$2, \$1.75, \$1.87½ and \$1 25 per day, women receiving 75, and young persons an average of 37½ cents per day; the other makes its classification include bolster-workers, carpenters, cleaners and packers, finishers, fork finishers, forgers, grinders, hafters, inspectors, machinists, sawyers, temperers, wheel-workers, and yardmen, the average wages of men being from \$3 to \$1.50, women \$1, young persons \$1.50 to \$1, and children 75 cents per day. Hours of labor, 60; dinner-time 60 and 30 minutes; unable to read and write, 30. Average amounts

paid each employé per day, \$1.70 and \$1.61; earnings, per month, men \$104 to \$39, women \$26 to \$13, and young persons \$13 to \$6.50. Both of these establishments were visited, and information obtained as follows:—

(1.) Articles manufactured: table cutlery and butcher-knives. The business has been long established, and few interruptions have occurred. In October, 1869, a freshet swept away three large buildings, and during that time and till the ensuing spring very many were out of employment, receiving no pay except such as was given for common labor in connection with the freshet damages. Of those employed in the works half are piece-workers and half day-workers. The managers make their calculations of wages in pay for services upon the basis of \$1.50 a day for each person employed. The piece-work is let out, to a considerable extent, to contractors, of whom there are from 12 to 15. The average earnings of these contractors are \$100 per month. The contract system has been of gradual growth, and has resulted in cheaper and larger production for the same amount of expenditure. From ten to fifteen per cent. has been saved in cost. Wages are arranged by the contractors, who have the power to hire and discharge laborers. In general, it was stated by the officers, that if the company hired at as cheap a rate and worked the men as hard as the contractors do, they would be thought oppressive; as it is, very little is said about it. These contractors, however, have no control of funds, all the employés being paid from the company's pay-roll, which is a transcript of the time-books in the several departments. The workmen state that the results of the contract-system are reduction in wages and increase in the hours of labor. Payments are made monthly, in cash, up to two weeks prior to the day of payment. One-fourth of the force is paid every Saturday. In case the men get pinched for money, they are paid in orders, which they in turn sell, and thus procure the articles needed. Formerly this system was very prevalent, the order given being made payable every six months. The discount, when they are negotiated, is from five to ten per cent. Several of the workmen have places of their own, and the corporation has very few tenements. The ruling price for a tenement of four or five rooms is \$75 per year. There has been no strike or trouble for several years. The work is divided into specialties, few being masters of the trade as a whole. There is no system of overtime work. While 10 hours is the prevalent rule, in some departments they cannot stand it to work so long. The grinders average about 8 hours a day. By the eight-hour system, there would not

be so much loss of production among those who work by the piece, as among those who work by the day. During the month of March, with 357 employés, the average earnings for the month were \$41.21; in April, with same number, \$42.59; in May, with 356 hands, \$51.22,—which made the average day earnings, severally, \$1.58, \$1.63 and \$1.97. A considerable portion of the land available for settlement, in the vicinity of the works, is owned by some of the wealthy stockholders in the establishment. Most of the workmen live in buildings that are not overcrowded, although one old shaky building, off the main highway, has in it always from six to ten families. Of the foreign-born workmen the Germans take the greatest interest in the education of their children. Recent reductions in wages are charged to the contract system. In one room containing thirteen men, only four are now getting over \$2; formerly the average wage paid was \$2.50. Five of this thirteen have homes partly paid for, and valued at from \$2,600 to \$500; some of these same men have been at work from fifteen to twenty years. From seven to ten per cent. interest is paid for real estate loans on mortgage. Some of the children at work looked very small and young, while men were seen whose appearance was very worn and haggard. Special tendencies to disease are observable in some departments of cutlery labor, and local physicians have been led to investigate the matter. Results not yet made public.

(2.) These works are the oldest in the United States, and were transferred last summer from Greenfield to Montague (Turner's Falls), where extensive fire-proof buildings of brick, with capacity for employing 1,200 persons, have been erected, the Connecticut River supplying water-power, and the cutlery works forming the centre of what is destined to be a manufacturing place of great importance. The settlement about the old works was called "Tough End," by way of contrast with the rest of the town. The tenements were in detached buildings in immediate proximity to the works. Most of them of small size, and some having garden land attached. Rents for three rooms \$3.50 to \$5, four rooms \$5 to \$7, and five or six rooms \$8 and \$9 a month, \$12 being paid when garden ground was attached. Some houses were owned by workmen, their original cost, exclusive of land, being from \$500 to \$800. Building land sells at the rate of about \$800 per acre. The preceding winter there had been a strike against half-time work and ten per cent. reduction both on piece and hour work. Half the workmen turned out, but one by one went back within two days as fast as sent for, it being known that those who did not return would be discharged altogether. The two complaints of the men were the tendency to

cut wages down in winter, and the sub-boss system, by means of which the few thrive at the expense of the many. Generally the workmen were not very much ahead. One case was instanced of a man recently deceased, at the age of 60 years, who had worked on cutlery until two or three years before, and who, without speculating or the use of any other money than his labor-savings, had come to be the possessor of a farm valued at \$9,000. The articles manufactured are table cutlery, butcher and sailors' sheath-knives, pallet and pocket-knives, files and razors. Some of the processes the work passes through are as follows: Drawing, swedging, turning, plating, cutting, straightening, milling, bolstering-out, hardening, tempering, grinding, finishing, handle-planing, boring, cementing and finishing, buffing, cleaning and wrapping. The superintendent is from England and learned the trade there thoroughly, but has spent thirty years of hard labor and thought in perfecting the business here. The business is carried on in a more healthy manner here than in Sheffield, England. In these works the dust raised by the grinders is swept away from them, and out of the windows into the river by means of a system of blowers and fans. The rooms are large, light and well ventilated. In England the work was once done at home, all the parts by the same person, the factors supplying the material, each man being charged with the full amount and being credited with only so much as is returned. The manufacturer there is sure of having all his material worked up, while here supplies are used up much more wastefully. Here, machinery multiplies the amount produced, and the loss in one direction is made up by gain in another. The general use of machinery here also offsets the higher cost of labor, as compared with England. While fifty men there were making a hundred dozen blades, half the number here would make as many and even more in the same time. Here the men acquire enough to live comfortably, from \$5 to \$1.50 per day, while there they barely subsist. With good men, tools, and machinery, the business does not need protection. The contract-system, as carried out in one or two departments, is regarded as necessary on account of the number of unskilled workmen. The grinders are English, while the best mechanics are American.

At a hardware and cutlery establishment in Hampshire County, only a few men were employed in finishing up work partially completed, though 300 had been employed at times. The best of those thrown out of employment had many of them gone to Beaver Falls, Pa., some leaving their families living in

company tenements rented at from \$5 to \$10 per month, until they could afford to move them. The agent complained of the high cost of labor, and thought the way to bring wages down was to aid the workmen in procuring supplies of subsistence at wholesale rates, and in quantity. In case of reorganization, should try the experiment.

Five returns received from manufacturers of edge tools of various kinds, represent the counties of Franklin, Middlesex and Worcester. Whole number employed, 166, 134 natives and 32 foreign. Hours of labor, 60; one reports time in winter as 54 hours and less, while another gives the regular hours as 55, there being but five hours' work on Saturday; dinner-time 60 minutes, one, however, giving but 45 minutes. Number unable to read and write, 7. Average amount paid per day to each person employed, \$1.95. Wages from \$3.50 to \$1 a day, and earnings per month, from \$125 to \$19.50. The departments are represented in one return as follows: packing room, forge shop, polishing room, grinding room, turning room and general work. The larger part of the work seems to be paid for by the piece or job. On one return the classification includes forge-hammer men, blacksmiths, helpers, heel turners, machinists, hardeners and temperers, carpenter, polishers, grinders, overseers, painter, finisher and job hand. The following statement relates to a manufactory of bench planes, etc., where the men nearly all work upon wood:—

Salaried officers: a president,* at \$300, agent and treasurer \$2,500 and clerk \$1,200 a year. Steam power and improved machinery in use. When machinery was introduced considerable room was made vacant, which the company now rents with power to different small manufacturers. For the same reason, a diminished number of bench hands are now employed. The proportion is as 14 to 64. That is, 14 men now do the work which was formerly done by 64, four of them being required to run the machinery that effected the change. It is the intention of the company to employ more men as soon as the way is clear to introduce machinery for the manufacture of certain parts now purchased ready made. No complaint is made by the workmen on the score of steadiness of employment, and very few changes are made. The working-time in the winter months does not exceed 9 hours, yet more work is done in those months

* Honorary office.

than at any other season. The works are never lighted up. The reason given for the increased production in winter, is the cold weather, which is more favorable for work and has fewer temptations to absence therefrom.

Day wages are paid in full, whether the hours are more or less. The agent thinks that the introduction of the eight-hour system would result in less production; about one-fifth where the workmen had to keep pace with machinery, and one-tenth under other circumstances. The pay-roll, with the same number of hands, will sometimes vary \$500. If the piece-men do full work every day, they can earn from \$80 to \$100 a month. One man has a contract to take the machine work after the stock has been sawed out, by which he makes from \$150 to \$225 per month, after paying his men at the rate of \$2.75, \$2.50, and \$2 per day. Of the 42 men employed, 12 owned places earned by their own work. Some others have savings bank accumulations, varying in amount. One of the lowest paid machinists prefers to let his wages stay, without interest, in the treasury of the company. He now has to his credit there over \$2,800. He is 60 years old, owns a place, and does not need the money for his subsistence. The man that now receives the highest pay, six years ago was not worth a dollar. He is now worth \$6,000. Several have accumulated enough by their work to go into business for themselves. Two are members of a stock company in the same business in a neighboring town. One, who commenced work in the shop without a dollar, is now worth \$8,000, accumulated by his own labor, with interest thereon. Five men, after earning from \$2,000 to \$3,000 each, went West, and lost it all in land speculation. Three of them are now back at work. Temperance is encouraged by the company; skilled work being required, a man who gets drunk twice is discharged.

Accidents sometimes occur from the saws, but no one has been killed or permanently injured during the fifteen years that the works have been in operation. Most of the men live near the works; none further than half a mile. The company sometimes purchases coal, flour and groceries by the quantity for the workmen who unite their money in clubs. The company owns four houses, comprising six tenements, which are rented to their employes at the following rates: four seven-room tenements at \$9, one six-room house \$6, and one four-room at \$4 per month. These houses are neat, commodious and well finished.

An employer manufacturing planes in a small way, reports the average day wages as \$2.50. The men work by the piece,

usually nine hours per day, leaving their work when a certain amount has been done. Another pays \$1 and \$2 a day for ten hours' work.

A manufacturer of screw-drivers, mince knives, ice tools, awls, etc., employs 25 men at a uniform pay of \$2 a day, and keeps a store at the same time. Pays employes on account and settles fully once a quarter. Hours of labor, 63.

A fork manufacturer employs 15 men, and pays from \$3.75 to \$1.25 a day ; on job work has men who sometimes make \$4 and \$5 a day ; the highest wages are paid to trip-hammer men.

A shoe-tool manufacturer employing 13 persons pays from \$75 to \$24 a month ; average pay per day to each person employed, \$1.73.

Wire Goods, etc.

A manufacturing company in Worcester County employs 843 persons, 125 of them native. Wages per day, highest, lowest and average, in one wire and rolling mill are \$3.50, \$1.65 and \$1.95 ; in another, \$3.75, \$1.75 and \$2.43 ; in yarn mill (girls) \$1.05, 85 and 95 cents ; hours of labor, 77. Three returns received from wire-goods manufacturers. Number employed, 155 ; 101 native and 54 foreign. Hours of labor, 63, 60 and 59. Unable to read and write, 2. Earnings per month, from \$100 to \$12. Average amount paid per day to each person employed 99 cents.

A rivet company in Plymouth County employs 8 persons, two wire-drawers, annealers and rivet makers, and a machinist and packing girl. Earnings per month \$57 to \$23.50 ; average per day to each person, \$1.59.

A manufacturer of iron spring beds employs 15 persons, 10 of them under 15 years of age ; men's wages from \$3 to \$2, and that of young persons from \$1.50 to \$1 ; eight processes in the manufacture.

Metal Work in general.

An examination of 134 returns shows that 13,395 persons are employed ; that 2,100 more have been or could readily be employed ; and that the proportion of native and foreign is very near equal, being as 54 to 53. Mention is made of 175 women and 598 young persons on blanks used, that would admit of this classification. Number unable to read and write, 886.

The hours of labor are generally 60 per week, but there are exceptions as follows: 77 hours, one establishment; 72, two; 66, three; $64\frac{1}{2}$, one; 64, one; 63, two; 61, two; $60\frac{1}{2}$, one; $59\frac{1}{2}$, one; 59, twenty-three; 58, one; 57, two; 55, two; 54, eight; 53, one; and 48, two. Saturday time 10 hours, with following exceptions: 11 hours, two establishments; $10\frac{1}{2}$, one; $9\frac{1}{2}$, three; $9\frac{1}{4}$, one; 9, thirty-six; $8\frac{3}{4}$, three; $8\frac{1}{2}$, four; $8\frac{1}{3}$, one; 8, six; $7\frac{1}{2}$, one; and 5, two. Dinner-time 60 minutes, except that in two cases the time is 50 minutes, in nine 45 minutes, and in four 30 minutes.

Wages paid foremen, from \$8.33 to \$2; men, \$4.62 to \$1.25; women, \$1.50 to 67 cents; and young persons, \$1.30 to 37 cents. Average amount paid per day to each person employed, \$1.93.

Still further information in miscellaneous employment tables.

DIVISION V.—SHIP AND BOAT-BUILDING.

SUBDIVISION 1.—*Boats.*

A boat-builder in Suffolk County reports three men employed at \$2.50 per day; highest and lowest earnings for six months, \$400 and \$200; hours of labor, 60. Other returns incomplete.

SUBDIVISION 2.—*Ships.*

Three returns received from Boston. One firm employing 5 shipwrights pays an average of \$4 a day; hours of labor, 48. Two companies employ together 85 men, 18 of them foreign; hours of labor, 48; classification, wages and earnings as follows: 25 carpenters at \$3 a day, and from \$82 to \$61 a month; 19 joiners at \$3 a day, and from \$72 to \$67 a month; 7 bolters at \$2.50 a day, and from \$72 to \$65 a month; 12 painters at \$3 and \$2.75 a day, and from \$71 to \$66 a month; 9 caulkers at \$3.50 and \$3.25 a day, and from \$83 to \$65 a month; 4 spar makers at \$3 a day, and from \$82 to \$61 a month; 3 sail-makers at \$3 a day, and from \$82 to \$61 a month; 6 riggers at \$3.50 and \$3 a day, and from \$78 to \$75 a month; plumbers \$3, and from \$78 to \$70 a month.

A rigging firm reports the business so dull that they are entirely dependent for work on old vessels; hours of labor, 54. In some sail-making lofts women are employed at an average of \$1 per day; men usually receive 30 cents an hour, and work

about 60 hours a week ; they earn from \$3.50 to \$2.50 per day ; the work goes by orders ; an employer will take on ten or twelve men for a week, and then may not have any one at work for two or three weeks following.

Some further information may be found among miscellaneous tables.

DIVISION VI.—MISCELLANEOUS.

Bedsteads, etc.

An employer in Hampden County keeps 12 persons steadily employed making bedsteads, cribs and cradles, at highest, lowest, and average day wages of \$3.60 and \$1.85 ; another employs 6 men at \$2.25, \$1.50, and \$1.83. An employer in Hampshire County has 25 persons working upon sleds, baskets, bedsteads, etc., besides considerable work done at home ; highest, lowest and average day wages, \$2, \$1.25 and \$1.50 ; at piece work \$3 to \$2 are often made in 10 hours' time ; work driving in summer and slack in winter ; rents and many articles of food very cheap. Hours of labor, 60.

Boxes.

Three returns received from Plymouth County. One employer pays his box-makers and sawyers \$2 a day ; the sawyers have work seven months of the year. Another employer hires 30 persons, 6 men, 5 boys, and 19 girls ; the men and boys prepare the stock, have charge of the machinery, etc., and earn, the former from \$75 to \$37, and the latter from \$33 to \$22 per month ; the girls work at nailing, pegging and bending hoops, and earn from \$50 to \$2.11 per month. At another factory the men are paid \$2.25, and women and young persons \$1.25 per day. Hours of labor, 59 and 60.

Brush Woods and Handles.

At a steam-mill in Worcester County 9 men are employed at earnings, per month, from \$78 to \$26. Hours of labor, 65.

Card Clothing.

A company manufacturing machine card clothing in Worcester County employs 30 persons, all native but 5, and 21 of them men, 4 women, and 5 young persons ; the men earn from \$4 to \$2, women \$3 to \$1, and young persons \$3.75 to \$1.25 per day.

Another manufactory employs 9 persons, only one a woman ; earnings per month, men, \$114 to \$62, and woman \$36 per month. Hours of labor in both cases, 60 ; board \$6 and \$3.75.

Cooperage.

Three returns received from Middlesex County ; number employed, 52, 11 being foreign ; average wages per month, \$40, the highest and lowest being \$70 and \$30 ; hours of labor, 60 ; unable to read and write, 6. Further information in miscellaneous employment tables.

Cotton Gins.

At a manufactory in Plymouth County 71 persons are employed, 2 of them women. Wages paid \$2.75, \$2.50, \$2.25, \$1.67 and \$1.25. The classification by employment embraces wood, iron, and saw-makers, saw and grate setters, painters, brush-makers, helpers, etc. Hours of labor, 60.

Fire-Arms.

A company in Essex County employs 100 persons : 75 machinists, at average per day of \$2.75 ; 15 wood-workers, at \$2.50 ; and 10 day hands at \$1.25 ; average pay per day to each person, \$1.59. Another in Worcester County employs 112 persons as armorers and cartridge-makers, at monthly earnings from \$130 to \$15.60. A pistol company in Hampden County employs 185 persons, 45 of them young persons, their average wages being \$3 for men and \$1.20 for young persons. The earnings, per month, of men are from \$250 to \$40. These most directly employed are classed as inspectors, contractors, and pistol-makers, contractors earning sometimes as high as \$250 a month, though their average is about \$5 a day. Hours of labor 60 per week ; unable to read and write, in the three establishments, 9.

Hair-Brushes, etc.

A company in Hampshire County has 50 persons employed in the manufacture of hair-brushes, hand-mirrors, fancy boxes, etc. ; wages from \$4 to \$1 per day ; earning, per month, \$104 to \$19.50 ; hours of labor, 59.

Isinglass.

A manufacturer in Essex County employs 17 men ; average wages per day, \$1.75 ; the article can be made only in three or four months of the cold weather ; hours of labor, 60.

Knitting Machines.

A corporation in Hampden County employs 150 men and 10 women, nearly all native ; average wages of men \$2.25, and of women \$1 per day ; hours of labor, 60.

Lasts.

A manufacturer in Essex County employs 6 men at from \$3 to \$2.50 per day. No returns from larger factories.

Locks.

A manufacturer in Suffolk County employs 29 persons, the men being paid \$17 and the young persons \$5 a week. A firm in Franklin County making locks, latches, bit-braces, etc., employs 12 locksmiths and machinists, 20 finishers, and 4 blacksmiths, at average day wages of \$2.75 and \$2.50. A company in Hampden County engaged in the manufacture of cabinet locks, mail-bags and military accoutrements, employs 75 persons, classed as lock-makers, moulders, machinists, leather-workers, foremen, laborers, boys and girls, at wages per day from \$3.50 to 90 cents ; unable to read and write, 15. Hours of labor in the three establishments, 60.

Looking-Glasses and Picture-Frames.

Skilled gilders and frame-makers are paid, in Boston, 28 cents per hour. A wholesale manufacturer of looking-glasses and picture-frames gives employment to 37 men at \$18, and 16 boys at \$5 per week. Another firm, employing 23 persons, pays boys \$3.50, and men from \$28 to \$10, the general average of the men being about \$15 per week. Hours of labor in this department, 59 and 60.

Pattern Making, etc.

Returns all from Boston. Wages per day, \$3.50 to \$2.75. A firm employing 9 pattern and model makers and 6 printers' joiners, pays the former an average of \$3.45, and the latter \$3

per day ; young persons receive \$4.50 per week, and all take a vacation of a couple of weeks in the warm weather.

A manufacturer of shoe-patterns employs a draughtsman, cutter, binder and finisher ; wages \$3, \$2.50, \$1.67 and \$1.

Hours of labor, 60 per week. Considerable information as to wages given in other parts of Class V.

Lead Pencils.

Three returns received from Middlesex County. Three persons are employed at one place, a man and two women ; earnings per month \$45.50 to \$26. At another five persons are employed ; highest and lowest earnings per month, \$78 and \$28.80 ; hours of labor, 84. A third employer pays a pencil-maker \$1 and a finisher \$2 per day, the former a young Norwegian woman who was taken away from field work and now runs and files a circular-saw, manages a small planing machine when required, and is handy with carpenter's tools in general. The man employed, who follows the carpenter's trade part of the time, saved \$300 last year ; is married but has no children.

Photographs.

One artist pays men employed \$22, women \$8, and young persons \$5 per week. Another pays men \$29 average, two receiving \$50 and \$60, and women \$10 a week, the hours of labor per day being 8, 9 and 10 ; at noon all the employés eat their dinners as quickly as possible, as a minute about 12 o'clock is worth more than ten minutes at any other time.

Prepared Paste.

A manufacturer employs 2 men and 2 young persons at an average per day of \$1.75 ; hours of labor, 8 ; machinery is employed, one machine being equal in its product to eight men's labor.

Pumps.

A pump and block-making firm employs 13 men at an average per week of \$13 ; highest and lowest six months' earnings, \$400 and \$216 ; hours of labor, 48.

A manufacturer of ship-pumps, capstans, etc., employs 17 men, and has, beside other necessary labor, four general departments—brass-foundry and finishing, machine, blacksmith and

pump-finishing shops; average pay per day, from \$3.25 to 92 cents; the men are paid about the same as for two years past; all work by the hour and are paid extra for overwork, and time is deducted when absent. This employer still further remarks:

“This is the worst year I have had since I began the business. Caused by large losses and bad debts. Don't know as any higher tariff would do me any good. A lower one might. If Congress would have a census once a year, I think it would pay business men, as they could calculate better as to the country at large. All my men work by the hour and are paid extra for overwork. The days are recorded at 10 hours each. We commence at 7, A. M., and close up at 5.30, P. M. During the war, when there were strikes in other shops, my men (about 25 of them), wanted to work by the day, and have the day changed to 8 hours. I refused to change from the hour to the day, but allowed them to vote and decide whether to keep the shop open 8, 9, 10 or 11 hours. They unanimously voted for 10 hours. Since July 9, 1862, when I commenced business, there has never been a strike to last 24 hours. The only strike lasted 12 hours, and I had then engaged better men, the men I now have in that shop.”

Two returns received from manufacturers of copper pumps, one employing 3 and the other 12 men, with average day wages of \$2.42 and \$2, and earnings per month from \$83.33 to \$32.50; hours of labor, 60.

Sewing Machine Needles.

A firm in Norfolk County employs 25 persons, 1 man, 4 women and 20 young persons, with average day wages of \$2, \$1 and 75 cents; earnings per week, from \$14 to \$4; hours of labor, 60.

Shuttles, etc.

A shuttle company employing 16 persons pays an average per day of \$2.25 to woodwork men, and \$2 to iron-workers.

A company manufacturing bobbins and spools, and employing 37 persons, pays an average per month of \$40; highest and lowest per day, \$3.25 and 75 cents.

Hours of labor in both establishments, 60 per week.

Steam Bending.

A firm employing 5 men pays per day, highest, lowest and average, \$2.75, \$1.50 and \$2; 60 hours a week, and 50 minutes for dinner.

Toys.

A small manufacturer paid one woman, for six months' services, \$193. A larger manufacturer, employing 7 persons,—4 men, 1 woman and 2 young persons, with pay per hour at from 22 to 8 cents; average pay per day to each person, \$1.20.

At Granville in Hampden County considerable business is done in the manufacture of drums. Number employed in two establishments, 55, and all are native but 3; women and boys are employed; hours of labor 66, though there is no rigid confinement to this limit; earnings per day, from \$5 to \$1, the most common average being \$1.75; among the subdivisions of employment there are wood-workers, planers, hoop-makers, painters, stringers, cutters, carriers, drumstick-makers, strap-makers, etc.

Tubs and Pails.

These articles are principally made in Northern Worcester County. The following table gives information which may be regarded as representative:—

No. of Persons in each Class.	O C C U P A T I O N.	Average per Day.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
20, . .	Turners,	\$2 25	\$75 00	\$31 00
20, . .	Painters,	2 00	54 00	25 00
4, . .	Finishers,	2 00	52 00	—
23, . .	Laborers,	1 62	52 00	26 00
4, . .	Teamsters,	2 00	55 00	46 00
4, . .	Sawyers,	2 00	52 00	37 00
4, . .	Girls,	1 00	26 00	20 00
10, . .	Boys,	50	20 00	6 00

Hours of labor, 60, 64½ and 66 per week.

Warehouse and Wholesale Stores.

At a warehouse in Boston, where 3 persons are employed, the wages paid are \$2.25 to \$1 ; hours of labor, 60.

At a wholesale store 2 travelling agents are paid \$4.50, 2 packers \$2.33, a book-keeper \$2, an entry clerk \$1, and 2 porters \$1.75 per day ; hours of labor, 59 ; travelling agents employed for nine months of the year.

Wheels.

A water-wheel manufacturer employs 26 workmen,—11 of them machinists, 5 wood-workers and 5 mill-wrights ; earnings per month, highest, lowest and average, \$97.50, \$39 and \$67 ; all native but one.

Another wheel manufactory, with 21 employés, classifies as follows : foreman, sawyers, drivers, rimmers, polishers, jobber, mortiser, benders and teamster ; earnings per month, highest and lowest, \$92 and \$26 ; average pay per day to each person, \$1.81.

Hours of labor in both establishments, 60.

Wooden-Ware, etc.

Six returns received, most of them from Worcester County. A manufacturer in Plymouth County reports 25 men employed at an average of \$2 per day. One in Worcester County returns the following information :—

No. of Per- sons in each Class.	O C C U P A T I O N .	Average Wages.	EARNINGS PER MONTH.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
2,	Foremen,	\$3 25	\$87 75	\$78 00
10,	Turners,	2 25	60 75	57 00
11,	Painters,	2 00	54 00	52 50
4,	Finishers,	2 25	60 75	56 00
5,	Teamsters,	1 75	47 25	45 25
6,	Sawyers,	2 25	60 75	57 75
18,	Laborers,	1 75	47 25	45 00
4,	Jobbers,	2 50	67 50	63 00

Average pay per day to each person employed, \$2.05.

A powder-keg manufacturer employs 8 men at an average of \$2 per day.

A wood-turner employs 6 men, 3 women and 1 young person, at \$3 and \$1 per day.

A mill-wright employs from 7 to 23 men ; wages, per day, from \$4 to \$2.75 ; highest and lowest monthly earnings for full time, \$108 and \$71.50.

Convict Labor.

The return of the Tucker Manufacturing Company, which has a contract for State Prison labor, and is engaged in the manufacture of spring beds and gas fixtures, is as follows :—

No. of Per- sons in each Class.	O C C U P A T I O N .	Av'ge Day Wages.	EARNINGS PER DAY.	
			Highest.	Lowest.
65	Moulders (Convicts),	\$0 94	\$1 07	\$0 83
4	Skilled Mechanics (Instructors), .	3 87½	5 00	3 00
58	Spring and Iron Beds (Convicts), .	94	1 07	83
6	Skilled Mechanics (Instructors), .	3 64	5 00	1 87
207	Gas and Kerosene Chandeliers (Con- victs),	94	1 07	83
15	Skilled Mechanics (Instructors), .	3 77	8 00	1 66
18	{ Superintendents, Architects, Pat- tern-makers, Engineers, Team- sters and Laborers, }	4 34⅝	16 00	1 00

Whole number employed, 373 ; 80 native and 293 foreign ; unable to read and write, 14 native and 29 foreign ; hours of labor, per week, 49⁵ ; dinner-time, 80 minutes.

MISCELLANEOUS EMPLOYMENTS.

In procuring information under this head personal inquiry was made, and blank No. 9 was used, which admitted of general application to those branches of industry or classes of employment which would not otherwise be very generally reached. It includes that kind of day-labor which is floating, or which is done by the job, as well as that connected with shops or small places, where only a few are employed, and mainly covers the ground of wages, hours and employment season. The information is presented in order, by counties, representative places in eleven of them having been selected for visitation.

Berkshire County.
[Representative places:—Adams, Great Barrington, Lee, Pittsfield and West Stockbridge.]

O C C U P A T I O N .	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			Hours of Labor per Week.	Employed during Year. Months.
	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.		
Bakers,	\$2 50 to \$2 00	\$0 75	\$1 25	60	11 to 12
Blacksmiths and Machinists,	3 00 to 2 00	-	1 50	60	12
Boot and Shoe makers,	2 00	75	-	60	12
Bricklayers and Masons,	4 50 to 2 00	-	-	60	8
Butchers,	2 00	-	-	-	12
Cabinet-makers and Upholsterers,	2 00	-	-	60	7
Carriage-makers,	2 75	-	-	54	12
Carpenters and Joiners,	3 00 to 2 50	-	-	60	10
Cigar-makers,	2 75	-	-	60	-
Clerks, selling,	1 75 to 1 50	1 00	-	84	12
Coopers,	2 50	-	-	60	12
Domestics,	-	3 00 to 1 50	-	-	-
Dress-makers,	-	50 to 25	50	60	8 to 12
Harness-makers,	2 00	-	-	60	12
Hostlers,	1 75 to 1 00	-	-	72	12
Laborers, farm,	2 25	-	-	60	7
“ common,	2 00 to 1 50	-	-	60	12
Laundry workers,	-	1 00	-	60	12
Loom-makers,	2 75	-	-	60	-
Millers,	2 00	-	-	60	12
Milliners,	-	1 25	-	72	4
Painters,	3 00 to 2 50	-	1 00	60	7

Berkshire County—Continued.

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			Hours of Labor per Week.	Employed during Year. Months.
	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.		
Plasterers,	\$4 50 to \$3 00	-	-	60	9
Printers,	2 00 to 1 50	\$1 33	-	60	12
Sawyers,	2 75 to 2 00	-	\$1 50	60	12
Sewing women, hand,	-	\$1 17 to \$0 75	\$0 75 to \$0 50	60	12
“ machine,	-	1 50 to 1 00	-	-	-
Stone-cutters,	4 75 to 2 00	-	-	60	8
Tanners,	3 00 to 1 75	-	-	60	12
Tailors and Tailoresses,	6 00 to 2 50	1 00	1 50 to 1 00	60	12 to 6
Teamsters and Drivers,	1 87 to 1 50	-	-	-	-
Tinsmiths,	2 50 to 2 25	-	50	60	12
Watchmakers and Jewellers,	3 00	-	-	60	12
Waiters,	-	3 00	-	-	-
Wheelwrights,	2 50	-	-	60	12

Bristol County.

[Representative places:—New Bedford and Taunton.]

Bakers,	\$2 25 to \$2 00	-	\$0 75	60	11
Barbers,	2 25 to 1 50	-	1 00	80	11½
Blacksmiths and Machinists,	3 00 to 2 00	-	-	60	11½
Boat-builders,	3 00	-	-	60	8
Bookbinders,	3 00 to 2 00	\$1 00	75	60	11
Boot and Shoe makers,	2 25 to 2 00	1 00	-	60	10

Profession	Min.	Max.	Avg.
Brass Founders,	\$3 00 to \$2 50	\$2 61	11 54
Bricklayers and Masons,	3 00 to 2 00	2 00	8 60
Butchers,	2 50 to 2 25	2 25	12 80
Cabinet-makers and Upholsterers,	2 75 to 2 50	2 50	11 60
Carpenters and Joiners,	4 00 to 3 00	3 00	10 60
Carriage Painters,	2 00	2 00	8 60
Caulkers,	1 75	1 75	48 -
Clerks,	-	-	-
Coopers,	1 75	1 75	11 60
Domestics,	2 50	2 50	12 -
Gardeners,	2 50 to 3 00	3 00	6 60
Gas-workers,	2 25 to 1 75	1 75	11 72
Harness-makers,	3 50 to 3 00	3 00	60 60
Hatters,	2 25 to 1 75	1 75	54 54
Hostlers,	2 00	2 00	72 72
Laborers, farm,	1 80	1 80	60 60
“ common,	2 25	2 25	10 60
Marble-workers,	2 00	2 00	11 -
Millers,	3 00 to 2 50	2 50	8 54
Milliners,	3 00	3 00	54 54
Painters,	3 25 to 2 75	2 75	60 60
Plasterers,	2 75	2 75	10 60
Printers,	2 00	2 00	9 60
Riggers and Sailmakers,	3 50	3 50	10 60
Sawyers,	3 00	3 00	9 60
Ship Carpenters,	-	-	10 60
Shipwrights,	-	-	54 54
Sewing women, hand,	1 25 to 1 00	1 00	48 48
“ machine,	1 50 to 1 25	1 25	60 60
Stone-cutters,	4 00 to 3 75	3 75	10 60
Tailors and Tailoresses,	2 25	2 25	11 60

Bristol County—Continued.

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			Hours of Labor per Week.	Employed during Year. Months.
	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.		
Teamsters and Drivers,	\$2 00	-	-	60	11
Tinsmiths,	2 50	-	-	60	11
Watchmakers and Jewellers,	\$3 50 to \$3 25	-	-	54	10
Waiters,	1 50	\$1 00	-	-	-
Wheelwrights,	2 75 to 2 50	-	-	60	11

Essex County.

[Representative places:—Amesbury, Haverhill, Lawrence, Lynn, Newburyport, Peabody and Salem.]

Bakers,	\$2 25 to \$2 00	\$1 50 to \$0 83	\$0 50	60	11
Barbers,	2 00 to 1 35	-	-	-	11
Blacksmiths and Machinists,	2 80 to 1 65	-	-	60	11
Bookbinders,	2 43 to 1 87	1 00	75	60	11
Boot and Shoe Makers,	2 75 to 2 25	-	-	60	10
Brewers,	2 40	-	-	-	10½
Bricklayers and Masons,	3 00 to 1 75	-	-	60	8
Butchers,	2 75 to 2 00	-	-	74	11
Cabinet-makers and Upholsterers,	2 50	-	-	60	11
Carpenters and Joiners,	3 00 to 2 75	-	-	60	10
Carriage-makers,	2 50	-	-	60	11
Cigar-makers,	2 75	-	1 00	60	10
Clerks,	2 00 to 1 60	1 30	-	48	11

Occupation	\$2 00	\$1 00	\$0 50	54	11
Confectioners,					11
Coopers,	2 50	-	-	60	7
Coppersmiths,	2 75	-	-	60	11
Cork-sole makers,	2 00	1 00	1 00	60	12
Domestics,	-	1 25	82	-	11
Gardeners,	2 00	-	-	60	7
Gas-workers,	2 25	-	-	66	-
Glue-makers,	2 00	-	-	59	-
Hatters,	\$3 50 to \$3 25	-	-	60	10
Hostlers,	1 75	-	-	72	11
Laborers, farm,	2 00	-	1 00	60	6
“ common,	2 12 to 2 00	-	-	60	10
Leather Belting,	2 80	-	-	60	11
Millers,	2 00	-	-	60	11
Milliners,	-	\$1 00 to \$0 60	85	60	9
Painters,	3 00 to 2 25	-	-	60	9
Plasterers,	3 50 to 3 25	-	-	60	11
Printers,	2 45 to 2 00	-	-	60	11
Riggers and Sailmakers,	3 00	-	-	60	10
Sawyers,	2 75 to 2 25	-	-	60	11
Shipwrights,	3 00	-	-	48	11
Sewing Women, hand,	-	1 00 to 83	50	60	11
“ machine,	-	1 25 to 87	-	60	10
Silver Platers,	3 00	-	-	60	10
Sleigh-makers,	2 45	-	1 00	60	8
Soap-makers,	1 75	-	-	72	11
Stone-cutters,	3 00 to 2 75	-	-	60	10
Tanners,	2 87 to 1 75	-	-	60	11
Tailors and Tailoresses,	4 80 to 3 25	1 25 to 1 00	70	60	10
Teamsters and Drivers,	2 00 to 1 12	-	-	60	11
Tinsmiths,	2 75 to 2 50	-	-	60	11

Essex County—Continued.

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			Hours of Labor per week.	Employed during Year. Months.
	Men.		Young Persons.		
	Men.	Women.			
Watchmakers and Jewellers,	\$3 25 to \$3 00	-	-	54	10
Waiters,	1 25 to 1 00	\$1 00 to \$0 95	-	-	11
Wheelwrights,	3 00	-	-	60	11

Franklin County.

[Representative place:—Greenfield.]

Bakers,	\$2 14	-	-	60	12
Barbers,	2 50	-	-	72	12
Blacksmiths and Machinists,	2 50	-	-	60	12
Bookbinders,	-	\$0 83½	-	60	12
Boot and Shoe Makers,	3 00	-	-	72	12
Bricklayers and Masons,	3 50	-	-	60	9
Butchers,	\$3 00 to \$2 75	-	-	84	12
Cabinet-makers and Upholsterers,	2 00	-	-	60	12
Carpenters and Joiners,	3 00 to 2 25	-	-	60	9
Clerks,	1 83½	-	-	72	12
Cigar-makers,	2 50	-	-	60	12
Domestics,	-	\$0 75 to \$0 38	\$2 00	72	12
Gardeners,	2 50	1 50	-	60	4
Harness-makers,	2 37	-	1 00	60	12
Hostlers,	1 75	-	1 00	-	12

Laborers, farm,	\$2 00	-	60	7
“ common,	\$2 50 to \$1 67	-	60	9
Millers,	2 62½	-	60	12
Milliners and Dressmakers,	-	\$1 00	60	6
Painters,	2 50	-	60	10
Photographers,	2 25	1 67	50	-
Printers,	2 00	1 33½	60	12
Sash and Door-makers,	2 00	-	60	12
Sawyers,	2 75	-	60	-
Sewing women, hand,	-	1 00	60	9
“ machine,	-	1 00	60	9
Stone-cutters,	4 00	-	60	8
Tailors and Tailoresses,	2 25	1 00	60	9
Teamsters and Drivers,	2 00	-	60	12
Tinsmiths,	2 50	-	60	12
Watchmakers and Jewellers,	3 00	-	66	12
Waiters,	-	50	72	-
Wood-workers,	2 62 to 1 50	-	60	12

Hampden County.

[Representative places:—Holyoke, Springfield and Westfield.]

Bakers,	\$3 00 to \$2 00	\$1 00	60	12
Barbers,	2 75 to 2 00	-	84	12
Blacksmiths and Machinists,	3 00 to 2 25	-	60	12
Bookbinders,	2 75	1 00	-	12
Boot and Shoe Makers,	2 00	1 50	60	12
Bricklayers and Masons,	3 75	-	60	9
Butchers,	3 00	-	70	12

Hampden County—Continued.

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			Hours of Labor per Week.	Employed during Year. Months.
	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.		
Cabinet-makers and Upholsterers,	\$2 50 to \$1 75	-	-	60	11
Carpenters and Joiners,	3 00 to 2 50	-	-	60	11½
Carriage-makers,	3 00	-	-	60	12
Cigar-makers,	5 00 to 2 50	-	-	60	-
Clerks,	2 50	\$1 00	-	-	12
Confctioners,	2 50	1 00	-	60	12
Coppersmiths,	3 00	-	-	60	12
Domestics,	-	1 00	-	-	12
Dress-makers,	-	2 00	-	60	12
Harness-makers,	2 50	1 16	-	60	11
Horse-car Drivers,	2 00	-	-	84	12
Hostlers,	1 75	-	-	90	12
Iron Founders,	2 25	-	-	60	12
Laborers, farm,	2 00	-	-	60	7
" common,	2 00 to 1 75	-	-	60	11
Laundresses,	-	1 00	-	-	12
Marble-workers,	3 00	-	-	60	12
Milliners,	-	1 75	\$0 87	60	11
Moulding-makers,	3 00	-	-	60	12
Painters,	3 00 to 2 25	-	-	60	9
Plasterers,	3 00	-	-	60	9
Printers,	2 75	1 00	-	60	12
Sash and Blind-makers,	2 75	-	-	60	12
Sewing women, hand,	-	1 25	87	60	12
" " machine,	-	1 25	1 00	60	12

Silver-platers,	\$2 50	—	—	60	11
Silversmiths,	3 50	—	—	60	12
Soap and Candle-makers,	2 00	—	—	60	11½
Stone-cutters,	\$3 00 to \$2 50	—	—	60	12
Tanners,	2 00	—	\$1 25	60	12
Tailors and Tailoresses,	5 00 to 3 50	\$1 00	75	60	12
Teamsters and Drivers,	1 75	—	—	60	12
Tinsmiths,	2 75	—	—	60	12
Trunk-makers,	2 25	—	—	60	12
Watchmakers and Jewellers,	3 00	—	—	60	12
Waiters,	1 50	1 35	—	60	12
Wheelwrights,	2 75	—	—	60	11

Hampshire County.

[Representative place:—Northampton.]

Bakers,	\$2 25	—	—	54	12
Blacksmiths and Machinists,	2 50	—	—	60	12
Boot and Shoe Makers,	2 00	—	—	60	12
Bricklayers and Masons,	\$3 50 to \$3 00	—	—	60	7
Brick-makers,	2 00	—	—	66	6
Butchers,	2 25	—	—	—	12
Carpenters and Joiners,	2 75 to 2 00	—	—	60	12
Clerks,	2 00	\$1 25	—	60	12
Dressmakers,	—	1 00	—	60	12
Gas-makers,	2 00	—	—	60	12
Harness-makers,	2 00	—	—	70	12
Hostlers,	1 75	—	—	60	12
Laborers, farm,	2 00	—	1 00	—	8
								—	1 50	60	

Hampshire County—Continued.

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			Hours of Labor per Week.	Employed during Year, Months.
	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.		
Laborers, common,	\$2 00	-	\$1 50	60	10
Laundresses,	-	\$1 25	-	-	12
Painters,	2 50	-	1 33	60	6
Sawyers,	2 00	-	-	66	12
Sewing women, hand,	-	1 00	-	60	9
" machine,	-	1 50	-	60	9
Stone-cutters,	4 00	1 00	-	60	9
Teamsters and Drivers,	1 50	-	-	60	12
Wire-makers,	3 00	-	-	60	12

Middlesex County.

[Representative places:—Cambridge, Charlestown, Lowell, Marlborough, Waltham and Woburn.]

Bakers,	\$2 25 to \$2 00	\$1 00	\$0 50	72	11
Barbers,	2 50 to 1 87	-	-	72	11
Blacksmiths and Machinists,	2 75 to 2 25	-	-	60	11
Bookbinders,	2 75 to 2 25	87½	-	60	11
Boot and Shoe Makers,	2 75 to 2 00	-	-	60	11
Bricklayers and Masons,	3 50 to 3 00	-	-	60	9
Butchers,	2 50	-	-	72	11
Cabinet-makers and Upholsterers,	2 75 to 1 95	-	-	60	10
Carpenters and Joiners,	3 00 to 2 75	-	-	60	11
Cigar-makers,	3 50	1 25	-	54	10

Clerks,	\$2 87	to \$1 75	\$1 25	-	60	11
Coppersmiths,		3 00	-	-	60	9
Curriers,		2 00	-	-	60	12
Domestics,		1 50	1 25	\$0 75	-	12
Gardeners,		2 00	-	-	60	8
Gas-makers,		2 75	-	-	60	12
Hatters,		3 25	-	-	54	10
Hostlers,		1 50	-	-	72	11
Laborers, farm,		1 75	-	1 00	-	-
" common,		2 00	-	-	60	11
Millers,		2 25	-	-	60	10½
Milliners,		-	1 00	75	54	8
Painters,		2 50	-	-	60	11
Plasterers,		3 00	-	-	60	8
Printers,		1 90	1 06	-	60	10
Riggers and Sailmakers,		3 00	-	-	60	10
Sawyers,		2 25	-	-	60	11
Shipwrights,		3 25	-	-	54	10
Sewing women, hand,		-	1 00	75	60	11
" machine,		-	1 25	75	60	11
Silver Platers,		3 25	-	-	54	11
Soap-makers,		1 60	-	-	60	10½
Stone-cutters,		3 00	-	-	60	10
Tanners,		1 87	-	-	60	11
Tailors and Tailoresses,		3 25	1 25	67	60	11
Teamsters and Drivers,		2 00	-	-	60	11
Tinsmiths,		2 00	-	-	54	12
Watchmakers and Jewellers,		3 25	-	-	54	11
Waiters,		1 25	1 00	-	-	12
Wheelwrights,		2 75	-	-	-	-
Wood-turners,		3 00	-	-	60	11

Norfolk County.

[Representative places:—Dedham and Milton.]

O C C U P A T I O N.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			Hours of Labor per Week.	Employed during Year. Months.
	Men.		Young Persons.		
		Women.			
Bakers,	\$2 50 to \$2 00	-	-	60	11
Barbers,	2 25 to 1 67	-	-	60	11
Blacksmiths and Machinists,	2 75 to 1 80	-	-	60	12
Brewers,	2 00	-	-	60	11
Bookbinders,	1 48	-	-	60	10
Boot and Shoe Makers,	2 25 to 1 90	-	-	60	11
Bricklayers and Masons,	3 00 to 2 00	-	-	60	8
Butchers,	1 87	-	-	72	11
Cabinet-makers and Upholsterers,	2 00	-	-	60	11
Carpenters and Joiners,	3 25 to 2 25	-	-	60	9
Clerks,	2 00 to 1 88	\$1 00	\$0 75	60	11
Domestics,	1 50	1 37	-	-	11
Gardeners,	1 90	-	-	60	7
Hatters,	3 00	-	-	60	10
Hosiers,	2 00 to 1 90	-	-	60	11
Laborers, farm,	2 00	-	-	-	-
" common,	2 00	-	-	60	10
Millers,	2 00	-	-	60	11
Milliners,	2 00	-	-	60	8
Painters,	-	89	75	60	9
Plasterers,	1 95	-	-	60	8
Printers,	3 25 to 3 00	-	-	60	11
Silver Platers,	1 80	90	50	60	10
	3 00	-	-	60	

[illegible]

Plymouth County.

[Representative places:—North Bridgewater and Plymouth.]

Awl-makers,	\$2 50	-			60	11
Bakers,	\$2 75 to \$2 00	\$1 00	\$0 75		60	12
Barbers,	2 25 to 2 00	-	-		-	12
Blacksmiths and Machinists,	3 25 to 2 25	-	-		60	12
Bookbinders,	3 25	1 25	1 00		60	12
Boot and Shoe Makers,	2 75 to 2 10	-	-		60	12
Bricklayers and Masons,	3 75 to 3 00	-	-		60	9
Butchers,	2 50	-	-		80	12
Cabinet-makers and Upholsterers,	2 75 to 2 25	-	-		60	12
Carpenters and Joiners,	3 25 to 3 00	-	-		60	10
Carriage-makers,	2 50	-	-		60	11
Clerks,	2 50 to 2 25	1 25	-		70	12
Coopers,	2 00	-	-		56	12
Domestics,	1 00	-	-		-	-
Gardeners,	1 35	-	-		90	12

Plymouth County—Continued.

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			Hours of Labor per Week.	Employed during Year. Months.
	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.		
Laborers, farm, . . .	\$2 50	-	-	60	-
“ common, . . .	2 00	-	-	60	11
Millers, . . .	2 00	-	-	60	10
Milliners, . . .	-	\$1 75 to \$1 25	-	60	9
Painters, . . .	3 00	-	-	60	10
Plasterers, . . .	3 25	-	-	60	9
Printers, . . .	2 25	-	-	60	12
Riggers and Sailmakers, . . .	2 75	-	-	48	12
Sawyers, . . .	2 50	-	-	-	12
Shipwrights, . . .	3 00	-	-	48	10
Sewing-machine Needle-makers, . . .	2 75	-	-	60	11
Sewing women, hand, . . .	-	1 25 to 87	-	60	11
“ machine, . . .	-	1 50	-	60	11
Silver-platers, . . .	3 00	-	-	60	11
Stone-cutters, . . .	2 50	-	-	60	12
Tanners, . . .	2 00	-	-	60	12
Tailors and Tailoresses, . . .	\$5 00 to \$4 00	1 75 to 1 40	-	60	12
Teamsters and Drivers, . . .	2 37 to 2 00	-	-	60	12
Tinsmiths, . . .	2 25	-	-	60	12
Watchmakers and Jewellers, . . .	3 75	-	-	60	12
Waiters, . . .	1 75	1 50	-	-	12
Wheelwrights, . . .	2 25	-	-	60	12

Suffolk County.

[Representative places:—Boston and Chelsea.]

[illegible]

Suffolk County—Continued.

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			Hours of Labor per Week.	Employed during Year. Months.
	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.		
Hostlers,	\$1 87 to \$1 75	-	-	72	11½
Horse Collar-makers,	2 50	-	\$1 25	59	8
Horseboers,	3 33	-	83	59	12
Locksmiths,	2 83	-	1 00	59	11
Laborers, common,	2 25 to 1 50	-	-	60	11
Millers,	2 50	-	-	60	11
Milliners,	-	\$1 50 to \$0 75	80	60	8
Painters,	3 00 to 2 50	-	-	59	9
Plasterers,	4 00 to 3 00	-	-	59	8
Printers,	3 50 to 1 80	1 00	63	59	11
Paper Rulers,	2 50	-	-	59	11
Pile Drivers,	2 50	-	-	60	9
Plumbers,	4 00	-	83	59	12
Porters,	2 33	-	-	60	12
Riggers and Sailmakers,	3 50 to 3 00	-	-	59	10
Sawyers,	2 75	-	-	60	10
Shipwrights,	3 50 to 3 00	-	-	54	10
Sewing women, hand,	-	1 00	62	60	10
" " machine,	-	1 10	-	60	10
Stone-cutters,	4 50 to 2 53	-	-	59	11
Slaters,	3 50	-	-	54	9
Soap-makers,	1 75	-	-	60	10
Tanners,	2 78 to 2 00	-	-	60	10
Tailors and Tailoresses,	4 00 to 3 75	1 25	1 00	60	10
Teamsters and Drivers,	2 50 to 2 00	-	-	60	11

Tinsmiths,	\$3 50 to \$2 50	-	-	59	11
Watchmakers and Jewellers,	3 25	-	-	54	11
Waiters,	2 00 to 1 25	\$1 50 to \$1 00	-	-	11
Wheelwrights,	3 50 to 2 00	-	-	54	10

Worcester County.

[Representative places :—Fitchburg, Milford and Worcester.]

Bakers,	\$2 50 to \$2 00	-	-	66	-
Barbers,	2 50 to 2 00	-	-	78	12
Blacksmiths and Machinists,	3 00 to 2 25	\$1 00	-	60	11
Bookbinders,	2 75 to 2 25	-	-	60	11
Boot and Shoe Makers,	2 50 to 2 25	-	-	60	10
Bricklayers and Masons,	3 25 to 3 00	-	-	54	8½
Butchers,	2 50 to 2 25	-	-	72	11
Cabinet-makers and Upholsterers,	2 75 to 2 50	-	-	60	11½
Card Clothing-makers,	3 50	1 50	-	60	12
Carpenters and Joiners,	3 00 to 2 50	-	-	60	10
Cigar-makers,	2 50 to 1 87	1 00	-	55	11
Clerks,	2 50 to 2 00	60	-	60	11
Coopers,	2 50	-	-	60	-
Coppersmiths,	2 50	-	-	54	11
Domestics,	-	1 00	-	-	-
Harness-makers,	2 25	-	-	60	11
Hatters,	3 50	-	-	54	10½
Hostlers,	2 00 to 1 75	-	-	72	11½
Laborers, common,	2 00	-	-	60	10½
Marble-workers,	2 25	-	-	55	11
Millers,	2 50	-	-	72	12

Worcester County—Continued.

OCCUPATION.	AVERAGE DAY WAGES.			Hours of Labor per Week.	Employed during Year. Months.
	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.		
Milliners,	\$2 75 to \$2 00	\$1 00 to \$0 90	\$0 50	54	8
Painters,	3 25 to 2 75	-	-	60	10
Plasterers,	2 75 to 2 00	1 00	-	60	9
Printers,	2 25	-	-	60	12
Rattan-workers,	3 00	-	-	60	9
Silver Platers,	-	1 00	-	54	10
Sewing women, hand,	-	1 25	-	60	10
" " machine,	3 00 to 2 75	-	-	60	11
Stone-cutters,	4 00 to 2 75	1 50 to 1 00	-	60	11½
Tailors and Tailoresses,	2 00	-	-	60	11
Teamsters and Drivers,	2 50	-	-	60	11
Tinsmiths,	3 50 to 2 50	-	-	60	11
Watchmakers and Jewellers,	1 75	1 25	-	54	11
Waiters,	3 00 to 2 25	-	-	-	11
Wheelwrights,	2 50	1 50	-	60	11
Wood Turners,			1 12½	60	9

Recapitulation.

Deeming it desirable, as a means of convenient reference, to present as many as possible of the foregoing statistical details in a condensed form, we have prepared the subjoined table. As a general thing, it needs no explanation; but in reference to the columns of "average earnings," it is to be noted that they are computed from the average daily wages, taking the working days in the year at 300, after having deducted, from the 365, 52 Sundays and 13 days more for legal and other holidays,—though 13 days would not fairly represent the time annually lost; that time would be more fairly represented, in those employments where the work is continuous, by a deduction of at least $2\frac{1}{2}$ days per month, or 30 days per year, leaving 270 wage-earning days. These lost days are caused by sickness of self or family, accidents to machinery, lack of work, travelling to make visits to friends or reception of them. Taking this average time, it will be found that the average yearly earnings of men, given on page 422, must be reduced from \$635.80 to \$572.40. It should be stated that, in those occupations wherein the working season is *less* than 10 months, some further small earnings may be made by working at some other employment, as in farm labor, chopping wood, getting in ice, fishing labor and shoemaking;—except in painting, masonry, house-building, &c., in which employments the workmen are said, by an employing painter, to spend their extra four months in healthy exercise of hunting for work which they do not find, and are consequently in the spring in good order to labor.

What opportunity or means of accumulating property are afforded to working men, from their earnings alone, need not be argued. That some workmen have accumulated is known to be true, but it could not have been done, to any considerable extent, on mere daily earnings, notwithstanding the oft-repeated declaration that any temperate, industrious workman can, before he is fifty years old, lay by enough, over and above the proper maintenance of his family, to support them and himself on its interest. To do it, is among the marvels of possibility, the accomplishment of which implies a life of the meanest stinginess, with no other purpose or enjoyment than that derived from a miserly cosseting of diminutive savings. (For actual earnings and expense of living, see Workmen's Table.)

In reference to the two cases cited on p. 292, it will be found that the man who on \$17 a month, or \$204 a year, accumulated \$6,000, must have saved the *whole of his earnings*, allowing nothing for food, raiment or sickness, for a period of nearly 18 years, to obtain that amount; and that the man who accumulated \$15,000 must have saved \$154 a year out of his yearly earnings of \$542 (allowing his wages to have been \$1.75 per day, the highest average paid at the establishment where he worked), for a steady period of 32 years of 310 working days each, allowing himself no vacation for any purpose either of health or sickness, and supporting his family on \$398 a year. By a simple computation in compound annuities at six per cent., it will be found that \$154 in 32 years will amount to \$15,890.30. The parties referred to must have "made money" by operations outside of day wages.

TABLE giving Length of Working Season per Year, Hours of Labor per Day, Average Daily Wages, and Average Yearly Earnings in the principal Employments reported herein, without Board.

OCCUPATION.	Length of Season in Months.	Hours of Labor per Day.	AVERAGE DAILY WAGES.				AVERAGE EARNINGS.			
			Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.
Farm Laborers,	8	10 to 14, .	\$1 58	\$1 00	\$1 02	\$0 50	\$328 00	\$200 00	\$204 00	\$100 00
Fishermen,	3	Irregular,	-	-	2 50	-	300 00	-	200 00	-
Coach Drivers,	12	10 to 15, .	1 75	-	1 75	-	525 00	-	525 00	-
Hostlers,	12	10 to 15, .	2 75	-	1 50	-	525 00	-	450 00	-
Expressmen,	12	10 to 12, .	2 50	-	-	-	750 00	-	-	-
Teamsters,	12	10 to 12, .	2 00	-	1 50	-	600 00	-	450 00	-
Horse-car Conductors,	12	10 to 15, .	1 75	-	1 75	-	525 00	-	525 00	-
Horse-car Drivers,	12	10 to 15, .	1 75	-	1 75	-	525 00	-	525 00	-
Watchmen,	12	10 to 12, .	2 00	-	-	-	600 00	-	-	-
Blacksmiths,	12	10, .	3 00	-	-	-	900 00	-	-	-
Horse-shoers,	12	10, .	2 50	-	-	-	750 00	-	-	-
Harness-makers,	12	10, .	2 50	-	-	-	750 00	-	-	-
Railroad Engineers,	12	10 to 12, .	3 50	-	-	-	1,050 00	-	-	-
Railroad Brakemen,	12	10 to 12, .	2 00	-	-	-	600 00	-	-	-
Railroad Firemen,	12	10 to 12, .	2 00	-	-	-	600 00	-	-	-
Railroad Mechanics,	12	10, .	2 50	-	-	-	750 00	-	-	-
Railroad Laborers,	12	10, .	1 75	-	-	-	525 00	-	-	-
Seamen,	12	12, .	1 45	-	1 65	-	435 00	-	315 00	-
Steamboat-hands,	12	12, .	1 82	-	-	-	546 00	-	-	-
Stevedores,	12	10, .	1 67	-	-	-	500 00	-	-	-
House-workers,	12	12 to 14, .	-	1 00	50	-	-	300 00	150 00	-
Shop-work,	10	10, .	-	1 00	50	25	-	250 00	125 00	62 50

Table giving Length of Working Season, &c.—Continued.

OCCUPATION.	Length in Months.	Hours of Labor per Day.	AVERAGE DAILY WAGES.				AVERAGE EARNINGS.			
			Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.
Store-work,	12	7 to 12, . .	\$2 00	\$1 25	\$0 75	\$0 20	\$600 00	\$375 00	\$225 00	\$60 00
Boots and Shoes,	10	10,	3 50	1 50	1 25	75	625 00	375 00	250 00	187 50
Button-makers,	12	10,	2 37	1 92	80	-	711 00	276 00	240 00	-
Hatters,	8	9 to 10, . .	2 35	1 00	85	-	476 00	200 00	170 00	-
Hosiery-workers,	10	10,	1 83	1 00	75	50	457 50	250 00	187 50	125 00
Rubber and Elastic Goods,	10	10,	2 12	1 25	1 00	65	530 00	312 50	250 00	162 50
Straw-workers,	7	10,	2 50	1 25	85	-	462 50	281 25	212 50	-
Cotton-workers,	12	11 to 12, . .	1 67	1 05	90	55	501 00	315 00	270 00	165 00
Print Works,	12	10,	1 50	87	87	-	450 00	261 00	261 00	-
Corset-makers,	7½	10,	2 50	1 17	87	-	450 00	210 60	156 60	-
Hoop Skirts,	7½	10,	-	1 00	55	-	-	180 00	99 00	-
Woollen-workers,	12	11 to 12, . .	1 57	1 04	83	58	471 00	312 00	249 00	174 00
Candle-makers,	12	11,	2 00	-	-	-	600 00	-	-	-
Soap-makers,	12	10,	1 75	-	-	-	525 00	-	-	-
Chemical-makers,	12	10,	1 87	-	75	-	561 00	-	225 00	-
Gas-work Laborers,	10	10,	1 75	-	-	-	437 50	-	-	-
Butchers,	12	10 to 12, . .	2 00	-	-	-	600 00	-	-	-
Millers,	12	10 to 11, . .	2 50	-	-	-	750 00	-	-	-
Sugar Refiners,	12	10,	2 00	-	1 00	-	600 00	-	300 00	-
Cigar-makers,	12	10,	3 00	1 25	50	-	900 00	375 00	150 00	-
Brick-makers,	7	11,	1 50	-	1 00	-	262 50	-	175 00	-
Pottery-workers,	12	10,	2 50	92	55	-	750 00	276 00	165 00	-
Glass-makers,	12	10,	2 00	75	87	67	600 00	225 00	261 00	201 00
Lime-makers,	10	10,	1 87	-	-	-	467 50	-	-	-
Quarry Labor,	10	10,	2 00	-	75	-	500 00	-	187 50	-

Stone-cutters,	11	9 to 10,	\$3 00	-	\$0 90	-	\$825 00	\$270 00	-
Bookbinders,	10	10,	3 00	\$1 00	75	-	750 00	187 50	-
Wood Engraving,	12	8,	4 00	-	1 25	-	1,200 00	375 00	-
Lithographers,	12	8,	3 50	-	1 00	-	1,050 00	300 00	-
Paper-makers,	12	10,	1 87	1 87	87	\$0 70	551 00	261 00	\$210 00
Paper-collar Makers,	10	10,	2 50	1 00	75	-	750 00	225 00	-
Paper Ruling,	12	9,	2 12	95	58	-	636 00	174 00	-
Printers,	12	10,	2 50	1 00	87	-	750 00	261 00	-
Type-founders,	12	10,	3 00	1 00	75	-	900 00	225 00	-
Bleacheries,	12	11,	2 25	1 00	1 00	80	675 00	300 00	240 00
Broom-making,	12	10,	1 75	-	-	-	525 00	-	-
Brush-making,	12	10,	1 87	1 00	75	-	561 00	225 00	-
Comb-making,	12	11,	2 30	1 12	90	-	690 00	270 00	-
Felting-making,	12	11,	2 00	83	78	70	600 00	234 00	210 00
Jewelry-making,	12	10,	2 50	1 25	87	-	750 00	261 00	-
Watchmakers,	12	10,	3 00	1 50	1 16	72	900 00	348 00	216 00
Tanners and Curriers,	12	10,	2 00	-	-	-	600 00	-	-
Pocket-book Makers,	12	10,	2 62	1 15	89	-	786 00	267 00	-
Sewing Silk,	12	10,	2 50	1 15	1 00	75	750 00	300 00	225 00
Cordage,	12	10,	1 67	80	33	-	501 00	99 00	-
Flax,	12	10,	2 00	1 00	1 00	55	600 00	300 00	165 00
Whips,	12	10,	2 75	1 25	1 10	58	825 00	330 00	174 00
Carriage-making,	12	10,	2 00	-	1 17	-	600 00	351 00	-
Carpenters,	10	10,	2 75	-	-	-	687 50	-	-
Masons,	8	10,	3 75	-	1 50	-	750 00	300 00	-
Painters,	8	9 to 10,	2 50	-	1 50	-	500 00	300 00	-
Plasterers,	8	10,	4 00	-	1 50	-	800 00	300 00	-
Sash and Blinds,	12	10,	2 50	-	-	-	750 00	-	-
Sawing and Planing,	12	10,	1 75	-	-	-	600 00	-	-
Machinists,	12	10,	2 50	-	-	-	755 00	-	-
Cabinet-makers,	12	10,	2 50	-	-	-	750 00	-	-

Table giving Length of Working Season, &c.—Concluded.

O C C U P A T I O N .	Length of Season in Months.	Hours of Labor per Day.	AVERAGE DAILY WAGES.				AVERAGE EARNINGS.		
			Men.	Women.	Young Persons.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Young Persons.
Chair-makers,	12	10,	\$2 25	\$0 87	\$0 67	\$0 37	\$675 00	\$261 00	\$201 00
Upholstering,	12	10,	3 00	1 17	83	-	900 00	351 00	249 00
Plane-makers,	12	10,	2 50	-	-	-	750 00	-	-
Boiler-makers,	12	10,	2 50	-	-	-	750 00	-	-
Brass and Copper workers,	12	10,	2 50	-	-	-	750 00	-	-
Moulders,	12	10,	2 50	-	1 00	-	750 00	-	300 00
Iron Founders,	12	10,	2 25	-	-	-	675 00	-	-
Sewing-machine Makers,	12	10,	2 82	-	1 77	78	846 00	-	531 00
Nail-makers,	12	10,	2 87	-	96	-	861 00	-	288 00
Tool-makers,	12	10,	2 62	-	1 37	-	786 00	-	411 00
Tinsmiths,	12	10,	3 00	-	-	-	900 00	-	-
Tin-ware Men,	12	10,	2 17	1 00	62	-	651 00	300 00	186 00
Cutlery-makers,	12	10,	2 25	1 00	1 25	75	675 00	300 00	375 00
Bakers,	12	10 to 12,	2 00	1 00	75	-	600 00	300 00	225 00
Shipwrights,	10	9,	3 00	-	-	-	675 00	-	-
Tailors and Tailoresses,	10	10,	3 50	1 25	87	-	875 00	312 50	217 50

Total number of occupations tabulated,

94

Average yearly earnings of men,

\$635 80

of women,

259 69

of young persons,

269 04

of children,

167 41

Cost of Living.

Information on this point was directly collected by personal inquiries in forty-two places, and the results thereof are tabulated herewith. Indirectly the matter also received attention in letters addressed to the Bureau by working-men, and the facts thus obtained will subsequently appear in this connection.

COST OF LIVING TABLE—Provisions, Groceries, Dry Goods, Boots and Shoes, Board, Rents, etc.

CITY OR TOWN.	Wheat Flour, su- perfine, per bar- rel.	Wheat Flour, ex- tra family, per barrel.	Rye Flour, per pound.	Corn Meal, per barrel.	Fresh Beef, roast- ing pieces, per pound.	Fresh Beef, soup pieces, per lb.	Fresh Beef, rump steaks, per lb.	Corned Beef, per pound.	Veal, fore quar- ters, per lb.	Veal, hind quar- ters, per lb.	Veal, cutlets, per pound.	Mutton, fore gr., per pound.
Adams, .	\$11 00	-	-	\$2 30	\$0 20	\$0 06	\$0 25	\$0 14	\$0 14	\$0 18	\$0 25	\$0 16
Asburnham, .	9 50	\$8 25	\$0 03	2 20	18	05	25	14	14	17	25	-
Amesbury, .	10 00	9 00	-	2 10	28	05	30	18	-	-	-	14
Boston, .	9 00	8 50	-	2 06	30	05	36	16	14	20	33	10
Charlestown, .	10 00	9 00	-	2 00	25	06	33	16	-	-	-	12
Cambridge, .	9 00	9 00	-	-	22	06	35	15	-	-	-	09
Chelsea, .	9 00	-	-	2 00	23	05	33	14	-	-	-	09
Dalton, .	10 00	9 50	03	2 12½	24	06	25	15	-	14	18	11
Easthampton, .	11 00	10 00	04	2 30	22	08	25	15	15	20	25	18
Fitchburg, .	10 00	9 00	-	3 00	23	05	28	16	14	18	28	19
Fall River, .	10 00	10 00	-	1 60	28	06	28	17	14	20	25	14
Great Barrington, .	10 50	9 50	03	3 00	20	05	16	17	20	24	25	20
Greenfield, .	11 00	10 00	04	2 40	18	07	25	15	13	18	25	15
Haverhill, .	9 50	9 00	-	1 90	23	06	25	15	-	-	-	12½
Huntington, .	12 00	11 50	-	2 35	17	09	20	12	18	18	20	20
Hinsdale, .	10 00	9 50	-	2 40	26	06	26	14	12	16	25	11
Lee, .	10 00	9 00	03	2 50	22	06	23	12	12	18	25	14
Lawrence, .	10 00	9 50	-	1 85	23	05	25	15	-	-	-	12½
Lynn, .	10 50	9 25	-	2 08	23	06	26	15	-	-	-	13
Lowell, .	9 50	9 00	-	1 10	24	05	25	16	-	-	-	13
Marlborough, .	9 50	9 00	-	1 95	24	06	25	14	-	-	-	15
Milford, .	10 00	9 00	-	1 90	22	05	25	14	-	-	-	12
Milton, .	9 50	10 00	-	2 10	28	05	30	18	-	-	-	14
New Bedford, .	8 75	10 50	-	1 40	22	06	26	16	12	18	22	14

Newburyport, . . .	\$9 00	\$8 50	\$0 04½	\$2 08	\$0 28	\$0 05	\$0 35	\$0 20	\$0 13	\$0 16	\$0 25	\$0 12½
North Bridgewater, . .	11 00	9 50	05	1 25	20	06	25	13	20	28	25	18
Northampton, . . .	11 00	9 00	05	2 25	25	08	25	15	20	28	28	18
Pittsfield, . . .	10 00	9 00	05	-	26	06	28	16	13	19	12	-
Palmer, . . .	-	9 50	-	-	20	06	25	14	17	22	25	22
Roxbury, . . .	10 00	9 00	-	2 08	30	06	30	18	-	-	-	14
Stockbridge, . . .	11 00	10 00	03	2 50	20	12	15	12	12	14	-	18
Salem, . . .	9 00	-	-	2 10	30	07	40	20	-	-	-	12½
Springfield, . . .	11 50	10 50	-	4 50	25	05	25	12½	-	20	25	16
Shelburne, . . .	10 50	9 00	-	-	18	06	23	12	12	18	23	18
Taunton, . . .	9 00	11 00	-	1 92	25	07	30	17	12	17	28	12
West Stockbridge, . .	10 25	9 25	05	2 40	20	06	20	10	12½	18	25	10
Westfield, . . .	11 00	9 00	03	-	25	06	25	13	14	18	25	15
Williamsburg, . . .	10 50	10 50	-	-	20	15	25	15	-	-	-	20
Winchendon, . . .	9 75	7 50	03	-	19	05	20	14	14	14	12	14
Worcester, . . .	9 50	9 00	-	2 10	25	05	30	17	-	-	-	12
Woburn, . . .	10 50	9 50	03	1 97	25	06	30	16	-	-	-	12
Waltham, . . .	9 50	-	-	1 10	28	06	30	18	-	-	-	14

COST OF LIVING TABLE—Continued.

CITY OR TOWN.	Mutton, hind qt. per pound.	Mutton, chop, per pound.	Pork, fresh, per pound.	Pork, salt, per pound.	Pork, ham, per pound.	Pork, shoulder, per pound.	Sausages, per lb.	Lard, per pound.	Codfish, dry, per pound.	Mackerel, salt, per pound.	Butter, per lb.	Cheese, per lb.
Adams, .	\$0 20	\$0 25	\$0 18	\$0 19	\$0 28	\$0 16	-	\$0 22	\$0 10	\$0 15	\$0 40	\$0 18
Ashburnham, .	15	16	25	20	25	16	-	23	08½	18	45	19
Amesbury, .	16	16	15	18	20	16	\$0 16	20	09	16	48	20
Boston, .	20	18	12	13	16	13	15	16	07	14	45	18
Charlestown, .	17	16	16	18	20	17	18	20	09½	-	48	20
Cambridge, .	16	16	15	18	19	14	18	22	09	-	50	20
Chelsea, .	16	-	15	18	19	14	18	22	10	-	48	20
Dalton, .	23	25	-	21	26	-	-	21	12	17	37	19
Easthampton, .	25	20	20	22	28	-	25	25	10	15	40	22
Fitchburg, .	24	25	18	23	23	-	20	22	08	14	48	20
Fall River, .	25	25	20	20	23	14	20	20	09	12	50	20
Great Barrington, .	25	25	-	23	25	20	-	23	09	12	38	20
Greenfield, .	16	17	22	22	23	17	25	25	08	18	38	23
Haverhill, .	25	20	17	18	19	19	16	20	09	16	48	20
Huntington, .	25	23	20	22	28	20	22	23	09	18	45	20
Hinsdale, .	-	-	18	22	27	-	24	-	10	17	37½	20
Lee, .	18	16	18	22	25	15	25	25	10	18	30	20
Lawrence, .	15	17	16	18	20	16	15	20	08	16	48	20
Lynn, .	16	18	16	18	19	17	16	21	09	16	50	21
Lowell, .	15	20	17	19	20	14	10	20	08	15	50	20
Marlborough, .	16	18	16	18	20	17	16	20	09	16	50	20
Milford, .	15	16	16	18	20	16	16	20	08	16	45	20
Milton, .	19	17	16	18	20	17	16	20	09	15	50	20
New Bedford, .	20	20	20	20	24	18	20	20	08	10	50	20

Newburyport, . . .	\$0 23	\$0 25	\$0 17	\$0 18	\$0 20	\$0 15	\$0 20	\$0 25	\$0 09	-	\$0 48	\$0 20
North Bridgewater, . .	17	25	17	21	20	11	-	22	08	-	38	20
Northampton, . . .	25	30	25	25	28	25	25	25	09	16	45	20
Pittsfield, . . .	25	19	-	22	28	-	24	22	10	17	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	19
Palmer, . . .	24	25	25	21	26	24	22	22	-	-	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	18
Roxbury, . . .	16	17	16	18	20	17	16	20	09	15	48	20
Stockbridge, . . .	20	-	20	20	30	24	-	22	10	16	35	22
Salem, . . .	23	25	18	18	20	14	20	20	10	-	50	20
Springfield, . . .	25	25	20	20	23	17	20	20	09	17	47	20
Shelburne, . . .	25	20	-	25	25	18	25	23	09 $\frac{1}{2}$	14	38	22
Taunton, . . .	20	20	20	18	22	-	20	20	09	16	50	20
West Stockbridge, . .	18	15	18	18	26	-	25	23	09	17	35	20
Westfield, . . .	25	22	-	20	28	-	-	23	09	19	45	22
Williamsburg, . . .	20	25	-	-	25	-	-	25	09	14	33	20
Winchendon, . . .	16	20	14	20	23	-	25	20	08	15	45	18
Worcester, . . .	20	18	15	17	20	16	17	20	09	-	46	19
Woburn, . . .	20	18	17	18	20	18	18	18	07	08	45	20
Waltham, . . .	15	16	16	18	20	17	16	20	08	15	50	20

COST OF LIVING TABLE—Continued.

CITY OR TOWN.	Potatoes, per bushel.	Rice, per pound.	Beans, per quart.	Milk, per quart.	Eggs, per dozen.	Tea, good black, per pound.	Coffee, green, per pound.	Coffee, roasted, per pound.	Sugar, brown, per pound.	Sugar, yellow C., per pound.	Sugar, coffee B., per pound.	Molasses (New Orleans), per gallon.
Adams, . . .	\$1 00	\$0 15	\$0 10	\$0 08	\$0 32	\$1 50	-	\$0 40	\$0 15	\$0 15	\$0 14	-
Ashburnham, . . .	1 25	12	13	07	33	1 00	-	-	12½	14	12½	\$1 00
Amesbury, . . .	1 10	11	10	08	50	1 10	-	35	12½	13	13	-
Boston, . . .	1 00	10	10	09	40	1 00	\$0 22	28	13	13	13½	85
Charlestown, . . .	1 10	12	12	09	42	1 10	-	35	12	-	13	-
Cambridge, . . .	1 10	12	12	09	44	1 00	-	45	12	13	14	-
Chelsea, . . .	1 00	12	12	09	44	1 12	-	45	12½	12	13	-
Dalton, . . .	90	12½	12½	07	33	1 16	-	45	13	16	-	-
Easthampton, . . .	1 50	12½	12	09	35	1 25	-	50	12½	14½	15	-
Fitchburg, . . .	1 15	10	13	08	30	1 20	-	30	12	-	13½	-
Fall River, . . .	1 10	12	12	10	50	1 25	-	56	14	14	-	1 10
Great Barrington, . . .	1 00	12	10	06	32	1 25	-	30	13	14	14½	1 00
Greenfield, . . .	-	12	10	08	32	1 35	32	45	13	14	14½	1 00
Haverhill, . . .	1 08	12	12	08	50	1 10	-	35	12½	12	13	90
Huntington, . . .	1 50	12	12	08	35	1 50	-	42	13	15	16	-
Hinsdale, . . .	1 00	12	12	07	35	1 00	-	50	14	16	-	90
Lee, . . .	1 00	12	12	08	35	1 10	20	37	12½	13½	14	-
Lawrence, . . .	1 10	12	12	08	50	1 10	31	34	13	12	13½	95
Lynn, . . .	1 10	12	11	09	50	1 10	-	-	13	13	13½	-
Lowell, . . .	1 10	12	10	09	50	1 00	-	35	13	12½	13	-
Marlborough, . . .	1 10	12	12	09	50	1 12	30	35	12	12	13	-
Milford, . . .	1 10	11	11	08	50	1 10	-	35	12½	12	13½	90
Milton, . . .	1 10	10	10	08	48	1 12	-	33	12	13	13	-
New Bedford, . . .	1 00	12	12	08	48	1 00	-	35	13½	13	14	1 00

Newburyport, . . .	\$1 08	\$0 12	\$0 12	\$0 08	\$0 45	\$1 10	\$0 25	\$0 35	\$0 13	\$0 13	\$1 00
North Bridgewater, . . .	1 20	11	10	08	35	1 15	45	-	15	-	1 00
Northampton, . . .	1 50	12	10	08	35	1 15	30	35	12½	14½	1 00
Pittsfield, . . .	1 00	12	12	08	35	1 15	25	45	16	-	1 00
Palmer, . . .	1 25	10	06½	-	25	90	-	30	11	12	-
Roxbury, . . .	1 10	10	10	08	50	1 00	-	35	12	13	-
Stockbridge, . . .	1 00	13	10	06	35	1 25	30	35	14	15	-
Salem, . . .	1 10	11	11	08	45	1 20	25	35	12½	13	90
Springfield, . . .	1 25	12	12	08	35	1 15	-	45	13	15	1 00
Shelburne, . . .	2 00	12½	13	07	35	1 25	45	50	13	15	1 00
Taunton, . . .	1 20	11	12	08	40	1 00	25	35	13	14	1 10
West Stockbridge, . . .	1 20	12	-	06	28	1 40	-	40	14½	13½	-
Westfield, . . .	1 50	12½	12	08	35	1 25	-	50	-	-	-
Williamsburg, . . .	1 00	12	08	06	30	1 25	-	45	14½	15½	-
Winchendon, . . .	1 00	11	10	08	33	1 00	35	40	12½	13½	90
Worcester, . . .	1 00	12	11	09	40	1 00	-	35	-	13	-
Woburn, . . .	1 10	10	11	08	48	1 10	28	35	13	14	-
Waltham, . . .	1 10	10	10	08	50	1 10	-	35	13	13	-

COST OF LIVING TABLE—Continued.

CITY OR TOWN.	Molasses (Porto Rico), per gal-	Sirup, per gal-	Soap, common, per pound.	Starch, per lb.	Coal, per ton.	Wood, hard, per cord.	Wood, soft, per cord.	Oil, coal, per gal-	Shirtings, brown, 4-4, per yard.	Shirtings, blue'd, 4-4, per yard.	Sheetings, blue'd, 9-8, per yard.	Sheetings, blue'd, 9-8, per yard.
Adams, .	\$0 75	\$1 00	\$0 10	\$0 16	\$7 50	\$8 00	-	\$0 40	\$0 14	\$0 18	\$0 15	\$0 25
Ashburnham, .	75	90	13	14	12 75	6 50	\$4 50	40	14	18	16	19
Amesbury, .	1 08	1 00	12	-	10 00	9 00	7 00	35	13	11	15	16 $\frac{1}{2}$
Boston, .	70	1 00	08	14	7 50*	14 00	10 00	35	12	12	15	16
Charlestown, .	90	1 00	10	15	8 50	14 00	10 00	40	14	15	15	20
Cambridge, .	85	1 00	12	12	9 00	13 00	8 00	40	14	16	16	20
Chelsea, .	85	1 00	12	12	9 50	13 50	9 00	41	14	17	17	20
Dalton, .	85	1 10	10	15	-	-	-	45	15	20	14	18
Easthampton, .	90	1 25	14	18	9 50	8 00	5 00	45	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	18	16	22
Fitchburg, .	85	90	14	13	10 00	9 00	7 00	40	15	16	15	18
Fall River, .	80	1 40	12	14	9 50	7 50	6 00	40	14	17	15	20
Great Barrington, .	85	1 25	10	13	9 00	7 50	5 00	45	18	18	70	70
Greenfield, .	90	1 25	12	14	10 50	7 50	5 50	60	15	18	14	21
Haverhill, .	85	1 00	11	14	10 00	10 50	7 00	40	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	13	14	16
Huntington, .	85	1 10	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	7 50	5 00	3 50	45	20	20	-	22
Hinsdale, .	90	1 10	10	14	-	-	-	40	13	20	14	18
Lee, .	80	1 00	10	12	8 50	7 50	4 50	50	15	18	20	23
Lawrence, .	90	1 00	11	15	9 00	9 00	7 00	40	13	14	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	16
Lynn, .	95	1 00	12	14	9 00	11 00	9 00	45	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	13	17
Lowell, .	1 00	95	12	14	9 50	11 00	8 00	45	12	13	14	15
Marlborough, .	90	1 00	10	14	10 00	9 00	6 00	40	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	13	16	17
Milford, .	85	1 00	10	14	10 50	10 00	6 50	40	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	13	13	16
Milton, .	1 00	1 00	12	13	8 50	13 00	9 00	40	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	13	15	17
New Bedford, .	80	-	10	12	9 00	7 50	6 00	35	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	15	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	17

Newburyport, . . .	\$0 85	\$1 00	\$0 10	\$0 15	\$8 00	\$10 50	\$8 00	\$0 40	\$0 12½	\$0 13	\$0 16	\$0 17
North Bridgewater, . .	90	1 00	10	16	10 00	9 00	6 50	40	15	18	17	30
Northampton, . . .	85	1 25	10	15	9 50	9 00	6 00	40	15	20	17	23
Pittsfield, . . .	85	1 10	10	15	11 50	-	-	40	13	21	15	18
Palmer, . . .	75	90	10	12	8 25	-	-	34	12	15	-	-
Roxbury, . . .	90	1 00	11	13	9 00	13 00	9 00	40	12	13	16	17
Stockbridge, . . .	85	1 25	12½	14	9 00	7 00	5 00	50	18	25	20	18
Salem, . . .	80	1 00	10	15	9 00	11 00	10 00	37½	12	13	16	17
Springfield, . . .	85	1 45	12½	14	9 50	-	-	38	13½	14	14½	20
Shelburne, . . .	75	1 50	23	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Taunton, . . .	85	1 12½	07	14	9 00	7 00	5 00	40	12½	12	13	16
West Stockbridge, . .	85	-	12	12½	7 50	7 00	5 00	40	18	20	20	-
Westfield, . . .	90	1 33	12½	15	10 50	8 00	-	45	14	25	18	22
Williamsburg, . . .	90	1 25	11	15	-	7 00	4 50	50	16	18	18	20
Winchendon, . . .	75	1 00	08	13	11 00	7 50	5 00	40	12½	15	15	20
Worcester, . . .	95	1 10	12	14	9 50	9 00	6 00	40	14	15	15	16
Woburn, . . .	80	1 00	11	13	10 00	10 00	8 00	35	13	12	14½	16½
Waltham, . . .	1 00	1 10	12	13	9 50	9 50	7 00	40	13	14	16	17

* Franklin coal.

COST OF LIVING TABLE—Concluded.

CITY OR TOWN.	Cotton Flannel, per yard.	Tickings, per yard.	Prints, per yard.	Delaines, per yard.	Boots, men's heavy, per pair.	Boots, men's calf, per pair.	Boots, women's, per pair.	Boots, child'n's, per pair.	Tenements, four rooms, per month.	Tenements, six rooms, per month.	Board, men's, per week.	Board, women's, per week.
Adams, .	\$0 25	\$0 16	\$0 13	\$0 22	\$4 50	\$5 00	\$3 00	\$2 00	\$8 00	\$12 00	\$5 00	\$3 50
Ashburnham, .	26	35	12½	20	5 00	5 00	2 12½	1 50	5 00	8 00	4 50	3 25
Amesbury, .	20	25	12	16	5 25	5 50	3 00	2 00	13 00	17 00	5 00	3 75
Boston, .	17	24	12	15	5 00	5 60	2 50	1 80	30 00	50 00	5 50	4 00
Charlestown, .	25	37	12½	22	4 75	5 00	3 75	2 50	14 00	20 00	5 00	3 50
Cambridge, .	25	35	12	23	5 00	5 25	3 50	2 30	12 00	18 00	—	—
Chelsea, .	25	33	12½	20	4 75	5 00	3 75	2 75	12 00	17 00	5 50	4 00
Dalton, .	31	37½	13	—	—	5 50	2 75	2 50	—	—	3 50	2 75
Easthampton, .	25	25	12½	20	—	—	—	—	4 00	5 00	4 00	2 25
Fitchburg, .	25	30	12½	16	5 00	5 00	2 75	1 80	9 00	14 00	5 00	3 50
Fall River, .	25	30	12½	20	5 25	5 00	2 00	1 50	7 50	13 50	5 00	4 00
Great Barrington, .	30	30	12½	25	4 50	4 50	2 75	1 20	8 00	16 00	5 00	5 00
Greenfield, .	25	30	12½	17	4 00	4 50	2 25	2 25	10 00	16 00	5 00	3 75
Haverhill, .	17	25	12½	18	5 00	5 50	2 75	2 00	12 00	17 00	5 00	3 75
Huntington, .	35	25	12½	18	5 00	5 50	2 75	1 75	4 16½	6 25	4 50	3 50
Hinsdale, .	30	38	12½	20	—	—	—	—	9 00	13 50	5 00	3 50
Lee, .	33	30	12½	20	4 00	4 50	2 50	1 75	6 00	8 00	4 00	3 00
Lawrence, .	18	23½	12½	18	5 50	5 00	3 50	2 25	13 50	18 00	5 00	3 75
Lynn, .	18	25	13	17	5 25	5 50	3 25	2 10	10 00	16 00	5 00	4 00
Lowell, .	18	28	12	17	5 00	5 25	3 00	2 25	13 00	17 00	5 50	4 00
Marlborough, .	17	25	12	18	5 50	5 00	3 25	2 50	10 00	15 00	5 00	3 50
Milford, .	17	25	12½	18	5 00	5 50	3 00	2 00	12 50	16 66⅔	5 00	4 00
Milton, .	18	25	12½	17	5 50	5 75	2 50	2 00	14 00	19 00	5 50	4 00
New Bedford, .	20	25	12½	20	5 00	5 00	2 50	2 00	8 00	12 00	5 00	4 50

Newburyport, . . .	\$0 17	\$0 25	\$0 12½	\$0 17	\$5 00	\$5 00	\$3 50	\$2 25	\$12 00	\$16 00	\$5 00	\$4 00
North Bridgewater, . .	30	37½	12½	15	5 00	6 00	3 00	1 75	9 00	12 00	5 00	3 75
Northampton, . . .	25	35	12½	20	4 50	5 00	2 50	2 00	8 00	12 00	5 00	3 50
Pittsfield, . . .	30	38	12½	22	5 00	6 00	2 50	1 50	11 00	17 50	5 00	3 50
Palmer, . . .	18	25	12½	18	3 00	5 00	2 50	1 50	-	-	5 00	3 75
Roxbury, . . .	17	23	12	16	5 00	5 50	3 25	2 60	-	-	-	-
Stockbridge, . . .	25	30	12½	18	-	-	-	-	5 00	-	5 00	2 50
Salem, . . .	17	24	12½	17	5 50	5 25	3 75	2 50	12 00	16 00	5 00	4 00
Springfield, . . .	25	30	12½	20	4 50	5 00	2 50	1 50	12 00	20 00	5 00	4 00
Shelburne, . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9 00	-	4 50	3 00
Taunton, . . .	17	30	11	17	5 50	5 00	2 75	1 50	8 00	12 00	5 00	4 00
West Stockbridge, . .	30	35	12½	22	5 00	5 50	2 00	1 75	5 00	8 00	-	-
Westfield, . . .	28	37½	12½	18	5 50	6 00	2 75	1 75	8 50	14 00	5 00	3 75
Williamsburg, . . .	33	35	12½	25	4 50	5 00	2 50	1 50	4 00	5 00	4 00	3 00
Winchendon, . . .	20	33	12½	-	4 75	5 00	2 00	1 75	8 33	12 50	4 50	3 50
Worcester, . . .	25	30	12½	20	5 00	5 00	2 75	2 00	12 00	16 00	5 00	3 75
Woburn, . . .	24	30	12½	45	5 00	5 00	2 40	2 00	12 00	18 00	5 50	4 00
Waltham, . . .	19	22	12	16	5 50	5 75	3 50	2 25	12 00	16 00	5 25	4 00

An examination of the prices in these tables, the items of which are already quite too familiar to many, will show that if a man is earning only \$2 or less a day, as is the case with thousands of men in the Commonwealth, with families, he must be very near the condition of poverty or want.

In much the larger part of the State, laborers are still only paid once a month, and for this reason store purchases are made upon a credit of 30 days. It is plain that, under this system, a man cannot trade to as good an advantage as with cash in hand, neither will purchases usually be made with as much prudence and forethought as he would otherwise use. The loss on this account, to those already poor enough, is from five to ten per cent. on the gross amount of wage-earnings.

In places where the manufacture of textile fabrics is the leading industry, tradesmen have to exercise the greatest care in the giving of credit, because their operative customers are constantly so near the verge of poverty. Measures are taken to collect the amount of money due at the mill counting-room, if possible. One company in South Adams makes an arrangement by which all the bills of tradesmen are presented at the company office, and the amounts thereof deducted during the process of paying off, the tradesmen thus receiving their collections in bulk, free from risk or trouble. It will hereafter be seen that a similar arrangement prevails in Southbridge, and the same is true of many other places. There are also many manufacturers in the central and western parts of the State who own stores close to their mills, where the operatives have an opportunity to purchase on account, as they need, up to certain limits; and while there are generally no rules absolutely requiring purchases to be made at these stores, the operatives feel that their interests will receive a certain measure of detriment unless they do. There are indications, however, that the system is becoming cumbrous, and that it will in time become obsolete. Where a percentage is made by the guarantee of tradesmen's collections, the net profit must be nearly as great and the trouble very much less. Either system is strongly suggestive of the dependent habits engendered and fostered by the factory system. One factory owner, of generally progressive instincts, affirmed that he retained the store on his premises from benevolent motives, since he desired to protect his employés

from exorbitant charges for articles of subsistence. This man charges an average advance of 10 per cent. from first cost, but allows every practicable indulgence.

In some places it has happened that when cheap imported labor was first introduced, tradesmen met with serious losses from treating the new comers as they had done old customers among native mechanics. A dry goods dealer in Easthampton in this way lost \$500 in a short time, because he treated the French Canadians, in the thread-mill, as he had American families, and individuals in other manufactories in the place.

The traders at Holyoke report very few losses now, though their bills are not guaranteed by the corporations. When the head of a new family asks for credit, the trader ascertains the wages earned per day and of how many persons the family consists. If a man has a wife, and three or four children, and earns \$2 a day, he gets credit for a month; if he earns but \$1.50 a day no account is opened. The grocery bills of factory families there average \$21 a month; meat bills, \$11; rent bills, outside of the corporations, \$10; and fuel bills \$5 a month, which gives a total of \$47, and represents \$1.50 in excess of a man's earnings in a month of 26 working days, at \$1.75 per day, besides showing also the desperate need of extra work from wife and children. Often the wages will not admit of such purchases of food as are for the best health of the members of the family.

In places where manufacturing takes other directions than that of textile fabrics, traders find it necessary to use no more than the ordinary precautions; though very many mechanics find it quite hard to make both ends meet, month by month. A meat marketman in Springfield said he lost very little by mechanics, but a great deal from boarding-houses, hotels and saloons. The purchases of a laboring customer amounted to from \$8 to \$16 a month. At Shelburne the traders said the cutlery workmen found it difficult to pay their monthly bills. At West Stockbridge, where the iron and quarrying business is extensive, the workmen require substantial food and are very large consumers of meats; the laborers barely manage to pay their store and market bills, though doing better now than for some years past. The workers on textile fabrics patronize the meat market much less in proportion than out-door laborers,

and the same is true as to purchases of vegetables. This difference is partly due to natural and partly to compulsory causes. On the latter point it may be observed, that the mechanic is often able to hire a house so situated that he can raise his own vegetables, as well as eggs and pork; while the operative has neither time nor opportunity to do so, being compelled to live where land is too valuable to afford him a garden, and to work such a length of time per day as forbids his going further to live, much less to go a further distance away, and then be able to tend a garden besides.

The limited purchasing power of the earnings of workingmen has led to many experiments in coöperative distribution. Among these stores there have been both successes and failures, the latter predominating, though some of the successes are of a conspicuous character. The favorite project of many workingmen is a system of combined or connected production and distribution, so complete as largely to alleviate their present straitened circumstances. Further on, this subject will have more attention.

A few examples, going somewhat into the details of family expenses and habits of living, may with propriety be given at this point.

(1.) A factory operative, a skilled and experienced workman, has a wife and two children, one of the children being 7 and the other 4 years old; the wife does not work in the mill. His average earnings and expenses, per month, are as follows:—

Earnings, per month,	\$45 00
Paid for rent,	\$9 00	
for fuel,	5 50	
for groceries,	15 00	
for meat and provisions,	6 00	
for milk,	2 00	
for clothing,	5 00	
Total,	42 50	
							<hr/>
Balance remaining on hand for sundries,	.					\$2 50	

Upon the small residue of \$2.50, the family has to depend for education, moral and religious instruction, sickness, inno-

cent and desirable recreation, reading matter, furniture, and the other necessities of life. The bill of fare at the table of this family is about as follows: At breakfast, bread and butter, and tea; pie, three times a week; mutton or beef, three times a week; dinner always eaten cold at the mill, consisting of bread and butter, two eggs, tea and sometimes pie; for supper, bread and butter, toasted cheese and pie, with occasional beef steak, and twice a week oatmeal porridge.

(2.) A carpenter in Springfield, with a family of wife and five children, finds his monthly bills about as follows: Groceries, \$32; meats, \$15; rent (three rooms), \$10; and fuel, \$5; a total of \$63. He is temperate, is in the prime of life, and has work eleven months of the year, but is never able to get ahead of expenses or materially to improve his surroundings.

(3.) The following details exhibit the expenses of a married couple in the vicinity of Boston (the husband a journeyman mechanic), for two months of 1870, which indicate the least and largest amounts expended during the year.

	EXPENSES.	
	February.	August.
Groceries,	\$10 00	\$21 21
Provisions,	10 16	10 26
Clothing,	1 45	19 18
Furniture,	05	1 10
Books, papers, stationery, &c.,	2 42	3 85
Religion, charity, &c.,	8 00	2 16
Fuel,	—	14 75
Sundries,	4 38	24 09
Totals,	\$36 46	\$96 60

As he owns his house, rent is not included in these items, but would appear for the year under the form of taxes, repairs, etc. Income was much reduced in February on account of lack of employment, and expenses were curtailed in the same proportion. The August account is swelled by the cost of part of the winter's fuel, and by the purchases of clothing incidental to the approaching change of season, while the item under the religious head is less than in February, on account of that being the

time for the regular quarterly payment. The amount under the sundries head seems large. Its incidental items are as follows:—

Local travelling,	\$1 44
Trip to Rockport,	4 35
Refreshments,	1 20
Washing,	2 56
Medicine,	28
Repairs to watch and pin,	4 60
House paper and hanging of one room,	7 80
Carpenter's rule, and knobs for repairs,	41
Salts of cream and gluene,	50
Soap,	10
Whitewashing,	75
Blacking,	10
<hr/>	
Total,	\$24 09

The first item is explained by saying that the sedentary and confining habits of the wife in the use of the needle, compel the free use of the horse cars in the early evening in order to reach localities where a refreshing, health-giving walk can be enjoyed. The two succeeding items include a railway trip by way of summer recreation, the whole covering a single day only. The item of washing is a weekly expense rendered necessary by the physical condition of most of our women. The other items are such as, in some form or other, are of constant occurrence. The demands for them, as well as the constant pressure upon intelligent labor, in connection with clothing, literature and religion, render essential a progressive increase in wages. In further reference thereto, and to the whole subject, this mechanic observes as follows:—

“I invite attention to the fact that these incidental expenses for one month exceeded the whole sum paid to a workman for the same time according to the latest North Adams quotations. They are not open to the charge of extravagance, since in the healthful circulation of income stimulating production in its varied branches, they plainly promote general prosperity. As I consider them in the light of present events, they speak forcibly to me of an ap-

proaching crisis as decisive in its character as the results of the effort to introduce slavery into Kansas. We have reached a point where intelligent labor has developed such social needs as to require an income that will not permit the continued accumulation of the vast sums in the hands of non-producers which has hitherto characterized modern civilization. Years ago I examined critically the Chinese junk then lying in Charles River. I am satisfied that the barbarian workmen, who put together in so faithful a manner her massive timbers, can enter the ship-yards as they have the shoe-shops. It is utterly impossible for us, under the conditions imposed upon us by our civilization, to meet successfully their competition. The single difference, that we honor woman, and in consequence admit the ideal element largely into our expenses through her influence, while they despise her and avoid this burden, would alone decide the contest against us."

The expenses of this family for eight months of 1870 were as follows:—

January,	\$59 50	May,	\$95 35
February,	36 46	June,	55 25
March,	54 36	July,	65 29
April,	85 76	August,	96 60

(4.) The following figures represent the expenses, in contrasting years, a decade apart, of a prudent, shrewd and reliable mechanic, living in the vicinity of Boston :—

Expenses from January 1, 1859, to January 1, 1860.

House rent,	\$120 00
Groceries, provisions and fuel,	201 38
Boy's clothes, medicine, repairs of furniture, &c.,	40 76
New furniture,	20 00
Horse-car and ferry fares,	31 20
Clothing for self, tools, &c.,	79 83
Newspapers, books, amusements, &c.,	17 58
Cash allowance to wife, in addition to her earnings,	20 00
	<hr/>
	\$530 75
Wages at \$2 per day, deducting 18 days' lost time, holidays, &c.,	590 00
	<hr/>
Balance,	\$59 25

Expenses from January 1, 1869, to January 1, 1870.

House rent,	\$240 00
Groceries, provisions and fuel,	363 89
Boy's clothes, medicine, repairs of furniture, &c., .	80 18
New furniture,	25 00
Travel,	8 25
Clothes for self, tools, &c,	126 00
Newspapers, books, amusements, &c.,	46 64
Allowance to wife,	25 00
	<hr/>
	\$914 96
Wages at \$3.25 per day, deducting 12 days' lost time, holidays, &c.,	978 02
	<hr/>
Balance,	\$63 06

Workmen's Statistics..

Thus far in the statistical part of this report we have to a considerable extent presented the statements of employers alone. Those of employes are of equal public interest. A limited number of copies of Blank No. 3 of last year remaining on hand, these were put to use as far as circumstances would admit. Such information as was obtained is presented herewith. While replies were more generally made by a comparatively well paid class of workmen, it will be noticed that representatives of a poorer paid class are not wholly wanting. Four tables follow these preliminary remarks. No. 1 furnishes information in the aggregate upon various topics, while No. 2 presents under certain general heads information in considerable detail upon the cost of living. No. 3 relates to real estate owned by workmen, and No. 4 to savings. The tables are followed by remarks, the several paragraphs of which are referable by number to the corresponding blank number in the tables; and these remarks will be found to give the peculiarities of each individual case. Reference for further details is made to the Appendix, where will also be found some of the ideas and experiences of representative workmen.

TABLE No. I.—Occupation, Nationality, Age, Hours of Labor, Wages, Earnings and Expenses of Workmen Returning Blanks to this Office.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NATIONALITY.	Age.	Hours of Labor per Week.	Wages per Week.	Earnings last Year.	Expenses last Year.
1	Weaver,	English,	29	66	\$10 20	\$300 00	-
2	Spinner,	"	37	66	12 00	528 00	\$609 00
3	Factory Operative, House Carpenter,	Irish-American, American,	26	67 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 50	-	-
4	House Carpenter,	"	53	60	18 00	825 00	805 00
5	Factory Operative, House Carpenter,	"	23	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 25	539 01	-
6	House Carpenter,	"	34	60	18 00	-	745 00
7	Machinist,	"	29	60	16 54	860 17	775 66
8	Machinist,	English,	43	60	-	-	715 00
9	Laster,	"	29	-	-	1,045 79	-
10	Boot-cutter,	American,	42	60	15 00	700 00	398 50
11	Salesman,	"	29	63	13 50	700 00	745 24
12	Overseer of Weaving, Machinist,	"	51	66	18 00	-	651 00
13	Machinist,	"	39	63	-	1,144 67	1,147 79
14	Carpenter,	Scotch,	37	60	17 00	875 00	875 00
15	Shoemaker,	American,	50	59	13 50	650 00	-
16	Machinist,	"	63	60	13 50	650 00	-
17	Section-hand, Shoe-cutter,	English,	40	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	15 00	-	-
18	Shoemaker,	American,	29	57	15 00	555 00	-
19	Shoemaker,	"	29	-	18 00	-	-
20	Machinist,	"	55	66	13 80	680 00	-
21	Boot-bottomer,	French,	28	60	13 50	704 00	679 00
22	Mule Spinner,	Scotch,	28	66	10 50	518 00	552 50

TABLE No. I.—Concluded.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NATIONALITY.			Age.	Hours of Labor per Week.	Wages per week.	Earnings last Year.	Expenses last Year.
23	Iron Moulder,	American,	.	.	38	59	-	\$1,500 00	\$1,500 00
24	Paper-box maker,	German,.	.	.	45	59	\$24 00	1,150 00	1,115 00
25	Shoemaker,.	American,	.	.	33	60	15 00	700 00	532 00
26	Shoemaker,.	Irish,	.	.	27	60	12 50	655 00	535 00
27	Machinist, .	American,	.	.	47	63	17 00	1,000 00	-
28	Contractor, .	"	.	.	45	60	-	1,200 00	-
29	Shoe-bottomer,	"	.	.	31	-	-	796 32	-
30	Shoemaker, .	Irish,	.	.	26	60	13 00	676 00	785 00
31	McKay Machine-Operator,	English, .	.	.	32	45	24 91	1,294 95	795 00
32	Machinist, .	"	.	.	26	60	24 00	1,000 00	982 00
33	Cigar-maker,	American,	.	.	26	-	16 50	750 00	658 00
34	Shoemaker,.	"	.	.	39	60	15 00	500 60	-
35	Cloth Finisher,	Scotch, .	.	.	45	67½	11 00	433 00	499 00
36	Machinist, .	American,	.	.	33	65	20 00	1,080 75	865 25
37	Machinist, .	"	.	.	32	60	13 50	637 92	488 01
38	Gun-barrel maker,	"	.	.	38	48	17 00	750 00	-
39	Cigar-maker,	German,.	.	.	36	-	17 00	700 00	-
40	Boot-crimper,	American,	.	.	56	66	12 00	600 00	485 00
41	Carpenter, .	"	.	.	46	48	-	978 02	914 71
42	Machinist, .	"	.	.	28	66	15 00	750 00	433 00
43	Shoemaker, .	"	.	.	26	66	15 00	675 00	604 00
44	Boot-maker,	"	.	.	36	60	10 00	400 00	477 00
45	Boot-bottomer,	"	.	.	48	-	-	-	-
46	Boot-cutter,	"	.	.	45	60	11 86	617 00	660 00

TABLE NO. II.—WORKMEN'S STATISTICS—Cost of Living of Working Men, as given by Items.

No. of Blank.	OCCUPATION.	NATIONALITY.	No. in Family.	No. of Rooms.	Wages per day.	Cost of groceries and provisions.	Cost of rent.	Cost of fuel and light.	Cost of clothing.	Cost of furniture.	Cost of education and recreation.	Cost of charity and religion.	Expenses of sickness.	Sundry expenses.	Total expenses.
2	Spinner, . . .	English, .	3	3	\$2 00	\$420 00	\$90 00	\$45 00	\$40 00	-	\$2 00	-	\$12 00	-	\$609 00
4	House Carpenter, . .	American, .	4	7	3 00	450 00	-	70 00	150 00	\$50 00	60 00	\$25 00	-	-	805 00
6	House Carpenter, . .	American, .	3	5	3 25	365 00	200 00	85 00	-	-	25 00	-	-	-	675 00
7	Machinist, . . .	American, .	3	6	3 00	348 04	-	41 30	158 10	42 00	21 60	68 85	15 00	\$80 77	775 66
8	Machinist, . . .	English, .	5	8	-	400 00	-	75 00	-	-	150 00	40 00	50 00	-	715 00
10	Boot-Cutter, . . .	American, .	6	7	2 50	250 00	-	40 00	20 00	-	7 00	1 50	80 00	-	398 50
11	Salesman, . . .	American, .	3	8	2 25	526 24	50 00	50 00	60 00	10 00	24 00	-	-	25 00	745 24
12	Overseer of Weaving, .	American, .	3	7	3 00	288 00	75 00	52 00	100 00	25 00	36 00	55 00	20 00	-	651 00
13	Machinist, . . .	American, .	4	7	3 00	325 21	125 00	61 00	118 77	143 83	41 30	41 61	2 40	188 67	1,147 79
14	Carpenter, . . .	Scotch, .	5	5	3 00	460 00	150 00	42 00	60 00	75 00	80	7 00	65 00	15 20	875 00
23	Iron Moulder, . . .	American, .	9	8	-	550 00	125 00	111 00	300 00	50 00	100 00	51 00	130 00	83 00	1,500 00
24	Paper-Box Maker, . .	German, .	9	6	4 00	510 00	-	60 00	300 00	35 00	10 00	20 00	80 00	100 00	1,115 00
25	Shoemaker, . . .	American, .	3	8	2 75	192 00	100 00	50 00	100 00	50 00	-	-	40 00	-	532 00
26	Shoemaker, . . .	Irish, .	3	3	2 80	280 00	72 00	44 00	75 00	14 00	-	12 00	8 00	30 00	535 00
30	Shoemaker, . . .	Irish, .	2	3	4 00	400 00	60 00	45 00	40 00	125 00	30 00	5 00	40 00	40 00	785 00
34	McKay Machine-Operator, .	English, .	3	5	4 00	312 00	100 00	64 00	125 00	38 00	23 00	120 00	12 00	-	794 00
32	Machinist, . . .	English, .	4	7	4 00	320 00	200 00	67 00	250 00	10 00	30 00	5 00	100 00	-	982 00
35	Cloth-Finisher, . . .	Scotch, .	5	4	1 83	294 00	84 00	44 00	40 00	-	11 00	16 00	10 00	-	499 00
36	Machinist, . . .	American, .	3	6	2 75	384 75	72 00	61 50	160 00	50 00	35 50	20 00	25 00	57 00	865 25
40	Boot-Crimper, . . .	American, .	4	8	2 50	250 00	100 00	55 00	25 00	25 00	5 00	25 00	-	-	485 00

42	Machinist,	.	.	American, .	3	6	\$2 50	\$270 00	-	\$55 00	\$35 00	\$35 00	\$15 00	\$13 00	\$10 00	-	\$433 00
44	Boot-Maker,	.	.	American, .	5	-	1 67	250 00	\$20 00	49 00	125 00	-	18 00	10 00	5 00	-	477 00
46	Boot-Cutter,	.	.	American, .	4	8	2 50	291 00	125 00	65 00	90 00	-	3 00	10 00	5 00	\$20 00	606 00
47	Shoemaker,	.	.	Irish, .	4	4	2 00	312 00	104 00	65 00	104 00	52 00	13 00	-	52 00	-	702 00
52	House Joiner,	.	.	American, .	6	4	3 25	375 00	312 00	85 00	100 00	-	9 00	20 00	25 00	20 50	946 50
55	Foreman, Lumber,	.	.	American, .	5	7	3 25	225 00	84 00	42 00	150 00	75 00	10 00	45 00	25 00	-	656 00
56	Boot-Maker,	.	.	Irish, .	10	7	2 00	425 00	60 00	57 00	40 00	-	10 00	17 00	-	-	609 00
57	Boot-Cutter,	.	.	American, .	3	5	3 00	275 00	156 00	54 80	50 00	-	25 00	-	25 00	5 00	590 80

Total number of returns tabulated, 28
Average number of persons per family, 4 3-13
Average cost per family, \$732 81

TABLE NO. III.—*Value of Real Estate.*

NUMBER OF BLANK.	Age.	No. in Family.	Earnings.	Expenses.	Value of Property.	Mortgage.
2, . . .	37	4	\$528 00	\$609 00	\$280 00	—
7, . . .	29	3	860 17	775 66	1,400 00	\$850 00
9, . . .	29	2	1,045 79	—	450 00	350 00
10, . . .	42	6	700 00	398 50	800 00	400 00
13, . . .	39	4	1,144 67	1,347 79	1,800 00	—
16, . . .	63	3	650 00	—	2,500 00	—
21, . . .	54	4	704 00	679 00	600 00	200 00
24, . . .	45	9	1,150 00	1,056 00	3,000 00	1,300 00
25, . . .	33	3	700 00	532 00	2,025 00	—
29, . . .	31	3	796 00	—	1,450 00	450 00
31, . . .	32	3	1,294 95	795 00	400 00	—
36, . . .	33	3	1,080 75	865 25	1,000 00	—
40, . . .	56	4	600 00	485 00	400 00	—
42, . . .	28	3	750 00	433 00	2,100 00	1,700 00
44, . . .	36	5	400 00	477 00	1,200 00	—
55, . . .	47	5	800 00	656 00	2,500 00	—
56, . . .	42	10	600 00	609 00	1,000 00	775 00
Total, . .	675	74	\$13,804 33	\$9,718 20	\$24,905 00	\$6,025 00

Number included in table,	17
Trades or occupations represented,	5
Average age, in years,	39 ¹ / ₂
number in family,	4 ⁶ / ₁₇
annual earnings,	\$812 02
annual expenses,	694 16
value of property,	1,465 00
amount of mortgage,	354 41
value of property, less mortgage,	1,110 59
accumulation per year since arriving at legal age,	58 45

We earnestly entreat attention to these tables and the results derived therefrom,—because, outside of all theorizing, they give actual facts, and certainly fail to support the commonly pronounced opinion of the pecuniary and property success of the thoughtful, temperate and thrifty workman. The returns all come from that class of persons, and are truthful and reliable. But it must be noted that six of the respondents return no rent nor equivalent for rent in interest on their real estate investments; only one returns any payment of taxes (\$20); four give auxiliary earnings made by wife and children; one

returns \$240 received in bounty money ; the average earnings of the 17 persons exceed the average earnings of the total 57 by \$59.06.

TABLE NO. IV.—*Savings.*

NUMBER OF BLANK.	Age.	No. in Family.	No. of Rooms.	Earnings, 1870.	Expenses, 1870.	Savings, 1870.
2, . . .	37	3	3	\$528 00	\$609 00	\$50 00
4, . . .	53	4	—	825 00	805 00	20 00
7, . . .	29	3	6	860 17	775 66	84 01
18, . . .	29	4	6	555 00	—	150 00
21, . . .	53	4	4	704 00	679 00	25 00
24, . . .	45	9	6	1,150 00	1,115 00	300 00
25, . . .	33	3	8	700 00	532 00	200 00
26, . . .	27	3	3	655 00	535 00	120 00
28, . . .	45	3	6	1,200 00	600 00	600 00
29, . . .	31	3	5	796 32	—	500 00
31, . . .	32	3	5	1,294 95	794 00	300 00
36, . . .	33	3	6	1,080 75	865 25	200 00
37, . . .	32	2	7	637 92	488 00	150 00
41, . . .	46	3	6	978 02	914 71	63 31
42, . . .	28	3	6	750 00	432 00	200 00
43, . . .	26	1	—	675 00	605 00	70 00
51, . . .	55	2	—	600 00	—	400 00
Total, . . .	634	56	—	\$13,990 13	\$9,749 62	\$3,132 32

Total number returning savings,	17
Average age of each, years,	37 $\frac{1}{3}$
number in each family,	3 $\frac{1}{3}$
earnings of each of 17 families in the year,	\$822 95
expenses of each of 14 families in the year,	696 40
savings of each of 17 families in the year,	184 25

Nine of these also made returns which are included in Table No. 3, so that the total number making returns of any savings or property is 25, viz. : 17 returning real estate and 8 returning savings exclusive of real estate. By reference to the following remarks it will be seen that Nos. 29 and 51 keep boarders.

Remarks.

(1.)* Keeps no accounts, but has been able to save nothing ; has worked at trade seventeen years ; wife works as a weaver, also, and earns \$7 a week ; united earnings not given.

(2.) Has worked at trade twenty-eight years ; wife and boy both

* The paragraph numbers correspond with numbers of blanks in the tables.

work in the mill, the former as a weaver at \$8.50 and the latter as back boy at \$3.60 per week; was sick last year twenty-four days; savings of the year \$50, and has averaged that amount for five years; owns some shares in coöperative store, and also 20 rods of land valued at \$14 per rod.

(3.) Lost, last year, eighteen days by sickness and one day by recreation; cannot give estimate of earnings and expenses, but has saved nothing of consequence; has been at work at trade ten years; neither wife nor child work in mill.

(4.) Has been employed thirty-two years; saved \$20 last year and \$100 in last five years; owns his own house, which was paid for from his earnings at wage labor; recent savings invested in bank.

(5.) Worked part of the year at shoemaking; wife works in mill and earns \$7.50 per week; has been able to secure neither savings nor property.

(6.) Has worked at trade nineteen years; by working pretty steadily comes out square at end of the year, but if there is any sickness in family must come out in debt; owns no property and has no savings.

(7.) Has worked fourteen years at trade; saved last year \$84, and during last five years \$269; owns real estate to the value of \$1,400; there is still due \$850 on which he pays six per cent. interest; is a shareholder in coöperative store.

(8.) Owns house of eight rooms and paid for same wholly from wages; no details as to value of same or wages, earnings and savings; has worked at trade twenty-seven years.

(9.) Saved about \$1,100 in last four years, most of which was put into furniture, books, piano, etc., for housekeeping, paid for with past savings; just commenced housekeeping; has paid \$100 on a house lot costing \$450; interest on the residue seven and three-tenths per cent.

(10.) Has been at work thirty years; from the savings of fifteen years' labor purchased a house which is valued at \$800, on which there is a \$400 mortgage at six per cent.; average savings per year for last five years, \$40.

(11.) Is single, but tries to support aged parents and a sister; has been at work nine years and has not saved a cent; has to depend upon borrowing for reading matter; has indulgent employer, and sometimes overdraws on his wages. Deficit last year, \$45.

(12.) Twenty-two years employed; owns no real estate; has savings in bank but no details given.

(13.) Twenty years at work; owns house and some land, the whole appraised at \$1,800; in sixteen years saved \$1,900 from wages, which sum was the cost of place; has some surplus in bank.

(14.) Has worked sixteen years; has neither savings nor other than personal property; never expects to earn a house from day wages.

(15.) Has worked forty years; wife does her housework and earns \$100 a year besides; three children earn \$12 a week part of the year; paid last year \$132 for rent, \$25 for charity, \$30 for religion and \$8 for recreation (4th of July); owns no real estate; keeps no account of groceries and provisions.

(16.) Owns real estate to the value of \$2,500, clear of mortgage, the result of twenty-five years' savings; has something in savings bank also.

(17.) Keeps no account of earnings or expenses; has no savings.

(18.) Has worked at trade five years; lost last year 26 days by sickness and 35 days by recreation; cost of provisions \$7.50 per week; has a house of eleven rooms, part of which is rented, value not given; there is a mortgage on it of \$1,950 at seven per cent. interest; pays the interest semi-annually and \$150 of the principal.

(19.) Wife works in cotton mill at \$7 per week, and earned last year \$166; no real estate; expended last year \$115 for clothing, \$82 for furniture, \$25 for sickness, \$15 for education, \$25 for recreation and \$5 for charity; other expenses not given.

(20.) Has worked thirty-seven years, and has house and land, besides something in bank; no details.

(21.) Has worked sixteen years; owns his own place, which is valued at \$600, and on which there is a mortgage of \$200 at eight per cent. interest; has been nine years making payments on it; keeps no account of cost of living by items.

(22.) Boards and pays \$6 per week; wife does some work; paid last year \$13 for fuel, \$1.50 for light, \$53 dollars for clothing, \$10.50 for furniture, \$2 for education, \$5 for charity and \$7 for religion; owns no real estate; lost 16 days time last year.

(23.) Has worked at trade twenty-two years, is hired by year; has no savings and owns no real estate. Average annual earnings \$1,200.

(24.) For last five years has saved \$300 per year; puts money saved into real estate; has a place valued at \$3,000, on which there is a mortgage of \$1,300 at seven and three-tenths per cent.; children earn \$250 a year at work; did not lose a day's time last year.

(25.) Has been at work seventeen years; by the savings of eight

years' labor bought a place; also owns real estate to the value of \$425; saved during last five years \$1,000.

(26.) Has been sixteen years at work; last year saved \$120, and put \$70 of it into bank and \$50 into life insurance; lost time last year 46 days, about equally divided between sickness, recreation, lack of work and "other causes."

(27.) Has worked seventeen years; has place of his own, on which there is still a savings bank mortgage; lost 10 days' time last year, a third of the amount from sickness; boy and girl at work 66 hours per week.

(28.) Owns no real estate; has saved \$400 a year for five years; put \$600 into savings bank last year.

(29.) Owns his own place, valued at \$1,450, on which there is a mortgage of \$450 at seven per cent.; paid the first \$900 from the savings of five years, two of them spent in the army and \$240 being bounty money; saved \$500 last year, half or more of it being made from boarders; paid last year \$125 for clothing, \$25 for furniture, and \$80 for religion and charity.

(30.) Has been ten years at work, and has just commenced housekeeping; no real estate. Has this year a deficit of \$109.

(31.) Has been four years in present employment; owns real estate to value of \$400; saved last year \$300; has savings in bank; wife earned last year \$100 on sewing machine; took eight days for recreation.

(32.) Has put savings into business. Is manager of a coöperative enterprise and doing well.

(33.) Is single; lost six weeks by sickness and one week for recreation last year; expended \$208 for board, \$200 for clothing, \$200 for sickness, \$25 for recreation, \$5 for charity, and \$20 for religion; puts all of savings into coöperative manufacturing; is getting well ahead, but does not give the amount of savings for last year.

(34.) Has been at work ten years; was out of work 110 days last year; had to expend \$70 for sickness; pays \$8 a month for rent of three rooms.

(35.) Wife earns \$2.50 a week by sewing; took a week for recreation last year; has no savings and owns no real estate.

(36.) Has saved \$1,000 during the last five years; owns no real estate, but has put money into bank and into life insurance; lost only three days' time during the year, and these were given to recreation.

(37.) Has worked at trade ten years; owns his house and 6,258

square feet of land clear of debt, value not given; paid \$50 for travelling and \$25 for sickness last year.

(38.) Owns no real estate; rent costs per year \$150, clothing \$100 and education \$10.

(39.) Has been twenty years at work; no savings; family and work in different places; lost last year ten weeks by sickness and two weeks by recreation; expenses—rent \$156, fuel \$60, furniture \$100, sickness \$20, education \$20, recreation \$30, and charity \$12.

(40.) Owns property valued at \$1,400, which was wholly paid for from labor savings; has been at work eighteen years; lost 60 days last year, 56 of them being from lack of work.

(41.) Has been married seventeen years, and during that time has never been kept from work by a single day's illness, and has never known what it was to be out of employment; paid last year \$363.89 for provisions and fuel, \$240 for rent, \$126 for tools, clothing, etc., for self, \$80.18 for boy's clothes, furniture, etc., and \$46.64 for amusements, newspapers, etc.; pays to wife regular allowance per month; owns his own house; savings have been only \$50 or \$60 a year, but was able to get his house by several fortunate speculations in real estate.

(42.) Has been eight years at work; saves an average of \$100 a year; last year saved \$200; owns house and lot valued at \$2,100, but owes \$1,700 thereon on which he pays seven per cent. interest.

(43.) Is single; has been five years at work; has no real estate; saved last year \$70.

(44.) Lives on his father's farm and works at wages part of the year; owns property to value of \$1,200.

(45.) Has family of thirteen; could not support a family at factory work; owns a place on which he has been making payments for twenty-five years, and there is still a mortgage upon it of \$500 at seven per cent.; no particulars as to earnings, cost of living or value of property.

(46.) Has been twenty-six years at work; lost 26 days last year; no savings for five years; owns no real estate.

(47.) Has been fifteen years working at trade; lost last year 50 days from lack of work; has made no savings yet. (See Appendix, story of workmen, No. XLV.)

(48.) Had no work for four months last year; has not been able to make any savings.

(49.) Has averaged \$50 a year saved for the last five years, which he has put into bank; pays \$72 a year for rent of five rooms; family, eight persons; cost of living not given.

(50.) Has been nine years at work; savings for last five years,

\$165 ; paid last year \$120 for rent, \$19 for clothing, \$100 for sickness and \$2 for religion.

(51.) Saved \$400 last year ; keeps boarding-house, and wife works 14 hours a day the week through ; is building a house.

(52.) Has been working at trade eighteen years ; no savings.

(53.) Is putting savings into real estate ; house and land assessed at \$1,300 ; is paying \$100 per year, with interest at seven and three-tenths per cent. ; earnings and cost of living not given.

(54.) Has been working thirty years at trade ; owns no real estate ; makes no savings ; pays for rent \$160 a year ; has family of three.

(55.) Owns \$2,500 worth of real estate, besides some bank stock and mortgages ; children earn \$6 a week ; owes no one.

(56.) Has worked at trade twenty-four years ; saved \$150 in ten years and bought a piece of land ; put up a house on it ; the value of the place is now \$1,000, and there is a \$775 mortgage on it at six per cent. interest.

(57.) Has worked at trade fifteen years ; lost 40 days last year, 30 of them from lack of work ; cost of tobacco per year, \$5 ; owns no real estate, and has no savings in bank ; average annual earnings \$500.

COÖPERATION.

The dissatisfaction with wage earnings among the more thoughtful of the working-men, a dissatisfaction on the rapid increase, has manifested itself in various ways, and not always in wise ways. Coöperation for the purpose of manufacturing and the sale of its products, and coöperation for the purchase and sale to members of the ordinary commodities of life, are among these manifestations. It is to be understood that, in a coöperative enterprise, the associated workmen supply, also, the capital, manage the business and divide the profits among themselves at a rate agreed upon, capital and labor fraternizing in the same enterprise and being in a unity of parties. From various causes failures have been more numerous than successes in our State in these experiments, the history of which would doubtless throw much light upon our general subject. But this it is not now possible to give, and we must be content with giving a few illustrations of each division of the method, reserving a full discussion for another report, though here it ought to be said that the general subject being specially assigned to another department, that of the Secretary of State, no partic-

cular pains have yet been taken to secure statistics which would be susceptible of tabulation, or, in other respects, afford material for giving a complete picture of the present status of these enterprises, and for a complete treatment of a subject of so vast importance to the cause of working-men. In pursuance, however, of instructions given to our assistants, such incidental inquiries were made, of parties interested, as it was convenient to do, and the information obtained is presented at this stage of our Report, special mention being made of four instances of coöperative distribution of household supplies, and four of co-operative production.

Coöperative Store at Fitchburg.

Deals in groceries and provisions ; was started by mechanics in 1864, on the simple method of clubbing a certain amount of money and purchasing in quantity according to the money contributed. Its primary object was to buy goods at a cheaper rate than could be done through middle-men. Subsequently, this experiment having proved satisfactory, organization for trading purposes was effected. The shares were put at \$10 each, and the amount of stock to be taken by each person was left unlimited. Any one could become a member who was acceptable to the board of direction. Any one is privileged to purchase, and dividends are declared on the purchases of all. Thirty days' credit is given. Profits are divided among members according to number of shares held. Two per cent. less is allowed on the second share a person holds, but on other shares the full amount is paid. The last dividend was six per cent. Present condition satisfactory. Sales amount to \$6,000 per month. Goods sold no cheaper, and, indeed, not quite as cheap as at other stores in the city ; but the quality is of the very best.

Coöperative Store at North Bridgewater.

Dealing in groceries and provisions. Was established in June, 1869. Capital stock \$3,000, in shares of \$5 each, owned wholly by Crispins. Goods sold to any one, and to all at one price. No credit. Dividends to existing shareholders only, declared every six months. Of the first dividend eight per cent. was passed to credit of capital stock and ten per cent. to

sinking fund ; there was then left to be divided among shareholders \$7.33 on every \$100 purchased. The dividend of July, 1870, gave to shareholders \$5.50 on every \$100 purchased. The diminution was due altogether to outlays rendered imperative by the enlargement of the business. Results wholly satisfactory. One of the effects of the store is thus stated : Before its establishment purchases were made on a credit of thirty days. After pay day and the settlement of bills there would be nothing left. Now that cash is paid in, the workmen have money enough left to carry them through to next pay day,—in short, they average now at least a month's wages ahead.

Coöperative Store at Randolph.

The following statement is from a workman in that town who was a shareholder :—

“A coöperative grocery and provision association was started here a little over a year ago. It was run successfully for six months, when jealousy crept in, and a change was made in the two principal men in the store. The majority of the board of managers put in new men ; their idea seemed to be to economize, as the new men would do the work cheaper. The change was the cause of dissatisfaction among shareholders, who withdrew much of their trade. In five months the store lost \$500, which was never satisfactorily accounted for. At the annual meeting in November, 1870, the stockholders were so much displeased that they voted to sell out. This was done and the store was discontinued. I am thoroughly convinced that the store would have been eminently successful under prudent and careful management. Managers should not act from personal feeling, but should consult the wishes of those who support such an institution. This splendid opportunity lost, another may never present itself in this place.”

Coöperation in Fall River.

There are in this city one (1) coöperative and ten (10) dividing stores, the latter purchasing and dividing its purchases among its members according to definite contributions and orders, and the former carried on in the usual methods of co-operation. These dividing stores are described further on in the testimony on factory life. They are conducted solely by operatives. It is proper here to mention that when, during the

so-called strike of 1870, the operatives claimed that the high cost of living would not admit of a reduction of wages, the reply was that the spinners did not have to pay the current high prices, as they were members of coöperative or dividing stores, using their efforts at getting their supplies at cheaper rates, as an argument against current wage, and indicating that wage was to be governed by the standard of what the operative could live upon.

Coöperative Production in Greenfield.

The Greenfield Coöperative Machine Company was organized July 1, 1870. Its superintendent is a young man of 26 years, who commenced to learn his trade in Providence at the age of 14. The shop, 50×40×12 in dimensions; the machinery and the power are all hired. Seven men are at work. All share in the profits equitably. Job work is done better than is usual, and somewhat under current prices. The superintendent is inventor of a planing-knife grinder, blacksmith's drill, and a bolt-cutter, which are made in the shop. Orders have been constant, and the prospects ahead are good. There is unity of feeling among the members, and all are more industrious and steady than before entering upon the experiment. Pay is drawn on the 15th of the month, and the men work on the ten hour system.

Coöperative Production at North Adams.

Incidental allusion has already been made to the manufacture of shoes by coöperation at North Adams, and its connection with the strike there about the time of the introduction of Chinese labor. Organization was effected July 25, 1870, with a paid-up capital of \$6,000 at \$100 per share. An established factory, not far from that of C. T. Sampson, was leased at a rental of \$300 per annum. The number of associates was 31. The officers consist of a president, clerk, treasurer and five directors, chosen for a year and are re-elective. Women's, misses' and children's balmoral shoes of the best quality are made. Number employed, 44; 35 men and 9 women. Nearly all are shareholders or are taking the place of shareholders. With increase of capital it is expected that outsiders will be admitted to ownership. Current wages are paid, and profits are divided upon the shares. Wages are paid monthly, though at

the beginning the men drew as little of their pay as possible. The buying and selling are done by one of the officers, his action being subject to approval or otherwise by the board of management. The first purchase of stock was made in Boston. Credit could not then be obtained. First bought on time at Albany. No difficulty is found in marketing goods, and orders have been abundant. Sales are made for cash, and also on ten, twenty and thirty days' time. The men at work speak with pride of their new feelings of self-reliance and freedom, as well as of the quality of their work and the tendencies developed toward a more economical production than before. Hours of labor, 59 per week.

Coöperative Production in Somerset.

The Somerset Coöperative Foundry Company has probably been longer established than any other coöperative producing enterprise in the State. Organization was effected October 18, 1867, for the manufacture of stoves and hollow ware. Works belonging to a company that had been out of business for two or three years, were purchased for \$6,500. Shares were put at \$100 and the amount of stock at \$15,000; 109 shares were taken at the outset, in numbers varying from one to five; 229 shares are now held by 42 persons, in numbers varying from one to ten, the latter being the maximum allowed by law. Twenty-five shareholders are at work, and six others have been at different times. Of the remaining eleven, some had been in business for themselves, some are in good positions elsewhere, and three or four are not practical workmen. Transfers of shares are not valid except with the approval of the board of management. There has not been uninterrupted prosperity. At first only a dozen could be supplied with work. In a few months a change in management became necessary, and the year closed at a small loss. At the end of a year a dividend of $13\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. was declared, and the year following about the same. All dividends are allowed to stand so as to increase the amount of working capital. Amount of business per year, about \$60,000. Wages are paid on account. All but six or seven are married men, and all but two, Americans. Four work by the day and all the rest by the piece. Better wages are paid than at other establishments in the county. The hours of labor are from 54 to 58; work is slack in January, February and

part of March. The agent is paid \$100 a month. He has had both a practical and a business experience. The money gain to some of the men has been from \$300 to \$500 more than they would have otherwise received. Wages paid are from \$125 to \$50 a month. No travelling agents are hired, but the agent sometimes makes tours in search of orders. In the earlier stages of the enterprise a great deal of self-denial had to be practised, but a willingness was shown to submit to any personal annoyance rather than allow the concern to suffer embarrassment. The men interested in the experiment received their preliminary education in coöperative ideas in their several trade unions. Similar coöperative foundries exist among the moulders of Troy, Albany, Cleveland, Cincinnati and St. Louis. The plans of the company contemplate a constant enlargement of the business. Harmony prevails and steady progress is made.

Coöperative Production at Westfield.

The American Cigar Makers' Coöperative Association was organized March 9, 1869. Two others are now in operation, one having been formed earlier, (immediately after the strike alluded to, p. 302) and the other later than the American. The one under consideration started by a sort of impulse, with no special selection of members, and, to a considerable extent, on borrowed money. Eleven men subscribed \$200 each, which gave \$2,200 as the capital for commencing business. It was agreed not to draw out any wages until August 15, the money to remain as a sinking fund. Before this time arrived one shareholder sold out at par to the association. After August 15, sixty per cent. of wages were drawn, the remainder reverting to the sinking fund. Two months later, two others sold their shares to the association at par, the men continuing to work for the concern at wages. The association then, by vote, reduced the capital to \$1,600, and in May, 1870, increased it to \$6,000, the necessary amount being drawn from the back wages reserve and returned as stock. At the annual meeting that year a dividend of 100 per cent. on each original share was declared, and then voted back into the treasury. An average of seven persons more than the shareholders has been employed from the beginning; sixteen, besides shareholders, employed at time of visit. These are paid union prices, but have no share in the

profits. Seventeen months after starting (in August, 1870), two more sold their shares to the association at an advance of \$500 over their original value. Each share was worth (August 20, 1870) about \$1,500, and the number of holders had been reduced to six. After the first three shareholders had withdrawn, the value of the stock rose to \$750. None of the women that work are owners. All the shareholders are practical workmen and cut close on stock, saving in this way \$2 and \$3 on a thousand. The travelling salesman is also a member. He makes his travelling expenses come within \$800 per year, while it is not uncommon for those of others in the trade, to reach \$2,000. Two or three have done all the hard and responsible work of management, doing it mostly at night. There have been very few losses. One, of \$1,000, made by a bad purchase, was concealed for awhile to avoid censure and disaffection.

SAVINGS BANKS.

A matter of greater moment than is usually conceded, and certainly full of interest, is that all the operations of these excellent institutions, and the whole reach of their influence, should be understood. As generally looked at—and the look is limited mostly to this one aspect—they are viewed as institutions under charge of men of good natural ability, fortified by a large business experience and of questionless integrity, and who may therefore safely and wisely be entrusted as custodians of the small savings of the poor; these savings to be so managed as to become a source of regular and certain income to each several depositor. It is further also considered, that in order fully to secure this income beyond a doubt, all loans made should be made on security absolutely without risk, and of convenient control, and so far has this laudable principle been carried, that it has not seldom been the case that parties desirous of small accommodation loans, such as workmen wishing to secure a homestead, have not been able to obtain them, the preference being given to parties borrowing on satisfactory legal security, in large amounts for business purposes. It is an interesting question to be solved, how far the deposits of the poor benefit the poor, otherwise than in the above named interest paid on deposits by the poor. If that be all, great as it is, it would seem that if it be out of the province of

these banks, as at present contemplated and managed, to extend their capabilities in aid of those who make them the depositories of their savings, it would be a matter worthy of serious consideration to devise a form of Savings Institutions which could legitimately and with entire security, subserve that purpose. To ascertain the facts in the case, we prepared a list of questions, covering loans and deposits, and the character of each, and directed them to representative banks in the Commonwealth. To these circulars we have received but one answer; and as we have been informed that full answers will be made during the present year, we have postponed the consideration of the subject to another report.

PART III.

WORK AND HOME LIFE OF FACTORY OPERATIVES, THEIR EARNINGS, ETC., ETC.

We now give some general information, derived from oral testimony, upon the work and home-life of factory operatives, their earnings, habits, morals, amusements, &c., &c., beginning with statements made by Mr. D. A. Brayton, given at the time of taking his testimony upon the Fall River strike (pp. 49-56). He said that—

“Taking a weaver’s earnings at \$9 a week or \$36 a month (or thereabouts), the man would have to pay from \$4 to \$8 (say an average of \$6) per month for rent. This would hire a living-room, with closets, a sink-room, perhaps one or two lodging rooms on the same floor, or one or two on the floor above, and an attic room. Our corporation has some tenements, but not enough for all our people. They live in corporation houses only when none other can be had, feeling more independent outside of them. When we started the Durfee Mill, we bought a nice block and set up a boarding-house. One side of it was for males, the other for females. We went in for keeping a good house, and not for making money. We expected to spend in table everything we got from the board-

ers. A matron was put in charge, and I am satisfied that the house was as good as any hotel in Fall River. The food was so good that the board received did not pay the running expenses of the table. The boarders were required to be in at ten, unless there was a good excuse for being out later. We ran it until they didn't seem to care about boarding there, and then abandoned it. We lost two or three thousand dollars in running the machine (the house), and then gave it up as not wanted.

The rent for the tenement described would be from \$75 to \$100 a year. If anything, corporation prices would be a little cheaper than those of outside parties. With a family of five, though there might not be in the balance enough for their support, there would be something more coming from the earnings of the other members of the family who might be at work. There are some families that earn together from \$150 to \$200 a month. I have in my mind a man and his wife who used to make from \$100 to \$120 a month.* I think I am right in saying that there is no place in New England where operatives make so much money as in Fall River. In Providence they are paying for weaving, 25 cents per cut; in Taunton, 25½ cents, while we are paying 27 cents, and were paying 30 cents before the cut down.† In the old mills here they are paying 28, 29 and 30 cents, there being that advantage in working on new machinery. In Taunton, on old machinery, they were paying 25½ while we were paying 30 cents on new machinery.

The rule here and abroad, so far as I know, is that the price of labor is fixed by the *purchaser* thereof, and not by the *seller*. A man comes, says he wants work, and is told what will be paid him. We usually have eight or ten men at the doors wanting to "*work sick*," that is, to take the place of men not able to work. The mill starts, the overseer sees how many mules are running, and who is out, and then steps to the door and finds a man waiting. Probably there are from 130 to 150 such operatives in Fall River all the

[* The earnings given before by Mr. Brayton are at \$36 a month for a weaver. Supposing the wife to earn as much as her husband, they would together earn, say \$72 to \$75 per month; or \$864 to \$900 a year. This couple appear to have earned from \$1,200 to \$1,440 a year. If so, the case must be wholly exceptional, and cannot be taken as a rule in estimating weavers' earnings.

† Prices paid (March, 1871) for weaving a yard of printing cloth, 64×64, at places named:—

Fall River, 45 yards at 27 cents being 6 mills per yard.

Taunton (Eagle Mills), 46 yards at 25½ cents, being about 5½ mills per yard.

Taunton (Dean Mills), 40 yards at 24½ cents, being about 6 1-5 mills per yard.

Taunton (Hopewell Mills), 45 yards at 28 cents, being about 6 1-5 mills per yard.

Providence (Oriental), 40 yards at 28 cents, being 7 mills per yard.

Providence (Steam), 52 yards at 38 cents, being 7 3-10 mills per yard.—*Bureau.*]

time. There is no restriction as to the time a man must be in, as he works by the job or piece, and if late, the loss is his, not ours.

Our manufacturing population is almost wholly foreign—English and Irish. They are as orderly and well behaved as the average of the working people. I have boasted a good deal about them, especially since our last Fourth of July celebration, when all were clean, well-dressed and orderly; when everything was quiet; when there was a smile on the face of every one, and no one was in liquor. In the matter of temperance, I find them like everybody else. In education, our foreigners are still a good ways below the Americans. Operative parents, as a rule, are very much pleased with our factory school.

For amusements, Jim Crow dances, or something to laugh at, are preferred. No free lectures are provided for the working people, nor are there libraries or means of instruction or amusement connected directly with the mills; but the city has a public library. A good deal of the help is as steady as the engine itself, while there is another class constantly floating.

We always recognize our people when we see them. I have never had them come to me in trouble or distress for confidence or advice; but have had them apply for money to bring over friends, and have loaned it to them. The owners and managers are a separate class from the operatives, so far as social position is concerned. If any of our help want to talk over matters, we are bound to hear them, and to look into any causes for dissatisfaction. If there is sickness or death among the help, we look after it. If a man is injured, we pay him right along, as if he was at work. We have money charged as paid to persons injured, from the day the mill began to this time. The earnings of operatives in Fall River are such as to enable them to accumulate something, if they are so disposed. Less than half save anything, however. It is a thing of management. *The trouble is in making a beginning*; once do that, and they will manage to save afterwards. For three or four months they have combined together and bought their stuff (house supplies) at wholesale. We have not aided them in the matter, and have not been asked to do so. Most of our children can read and write, and the new stock coming up are smart and enterprising. No one would say anything against the education of all. It is not usual when hands are discharged to notify other manufacturers, unless some special misdemeanor or gross offence has been committed.

The Chinese question has come up during the recent strike. I believe the European labor employed in our mills is stepping up.

Fifteen years ago there was hardly any one employed not American. There was a fuss if a foreigner was admitted to the house or the factory. The result has been, that our American girls have been worked out, and have gone to better positions, tending in stores and shops, or doing business of one kind or another, which is far better than working in a mill. I believe the Europeans are going to step up to something higher, and that the Chinaman will come in. I don't see what we are to do for labor, unless something of that sort comes along.

Remarks.

This concluding statement of Mr. Brayton, a managing and practical manufacturer, long resident in a manufacturing town, is very suggestive, and contains truths that demand serious attention. Everybody now knows that the educated American operative of the primary period of manufacturing (with its "Lowell Offering"*) has become palæozoic and extinct, and that a secondary period long ago succeeded it, furnishing a low grade of European operatives, congeners of a class which at home had been for centuries pauperized and kept in a state of most deplorable and stultifying ignorance. This class, Mr. Brayton believes, is also stepping up and out of the employment, and he does not see what "we are to do for labor unless the Chinaman comes along;" and so we get into the tertiary formation, by Mongolizing our factory towns. It would seem from this, that experience in factory life caused the exodus of an intelligent and thinking class, and that an ignorant and witless one came to fill its place; that these, affected, perhaps, by the educational influence of our institutions, are themselves undergoing a change, and getting to be thinkers and readers, perhaps overmuch; and so demanding, as all thinkers and readers are apt to do, more time for each of these instructive operations. These influences are deemed disastrous to the business, and a still lower grade of laborers must be utilized; and so the process must be indefinitely extended, of replenishing a better by a worse, provided the worse can be had at a cheaper rate, thus applying the element of shoddy to the operative classes. But, says the witness, they keep improving; they rise up from the factory and go out into a better condition; and therefore factory life is elevating in its influ-

* A periodical conducted by factory girls and discontinued in 1848.

ence. Now this is a concession that factory life is only tolerable as a school of progress, and a very poor and very slow one at that ; that its pupils are to be graduated only as fast as their places can be filled by a lower and cheaper set ; that cheapness must be the badge of the tribe of operatives, and that to insure the perpetuity of that badge, each succeeding tribe must be lower and cheaper than its predecessor. That is, that there must be, for the sake of cheapness, an eternal retrograde in their intellectual status, and that Christian laborers becoming too expensive, the “ heathen Chinese ” must be brought in for the double purpose of running looms and being Christianized by the operation. Well, the world must be made to progress, and if manufacturers think this will help it on, they can but enlarge and continue an experiment already begun. But it must not be forgotten, that all this is at the expense of the growth of the older tenants of the country, and perhaps at the peril of institutions the security of which depends on the education of the people who really rule their country, and who by education only can be enabled to rule it well. The longer this education is retarded by the perpetual additional drag of new and ignorant masses, the worse it will be for the republic. And it may be well to remember, that if the labor of Chinese males is cheaper than the labor of our present male operatives, it is not cheaper than that of our present females and children, by whom the greater part of factory work is done ; and that still more to cheapen, the labor of Chinese females and children must be introduced. And then, what ?

Testimony of Isaac P. Chase, Treasurer of the Tecumseh Mills, Fall River.

Some shares in the Fall River Mills are held by operatives, though to what extent the witness did not know, nor whether the purchase money was savings from their own earnings. They were original subscribers at the formation of the company, not buying their shares on their advanced value. Mr. Chase said there were many operatives who have supported large families and own real estate, their houses being scattered about from a mile to a mile and a half from the City Hall. This result was understood to have been achieved by the working of all available members of the families, wives and children, though he did not know “ whether the purchase money, either of stock or real estate, was wholly from their earnings as operatives.” Operatives have risen to be overseers, and,

where their education permitted, to be superintendents. He thought, that if circumstances justified further promotion, they might become superintendents, agents or treasurers, though he did not know of but one instance. He knew of no social distinction existing between the heads of these establishments and their operatives, there being perfect freedom of communication between them, and advice on business matters or about their own affairs being readily given. He added, however, that he spoke this only of his own practice, and that he knew nothing of what others did. He had been connected with manufacturing seventeen years and had no knowledge of anything like caste or class distinction. [The testimony is peculiarly different in this point from that of other witnesses, and is wholly against the known habits of manufacturing communities, where discipline forbids social familiarity.] The mills at Fall River do not and never have provided any intellectual instruction, or any recreation of any sort; no libraries nor reading-rooms for their operatives; no free lectures, no holidays, no hospital for sick or maimed work people; no relief societies, nor anything having any reference to their moral or intellectual growth.* What they require of their employés is constant work, every day excepting Sundays and legal holidays, for 11 hours a day,—being 66 hours per week for men, women, young persons and children, with the proviso that children known to be between 10 and 15 years of age are detailed for school during three months of the year. He said he believed there was a State law requiring this last, “but did not recollect whether it applied to children under 10, or under 15 years of age.” *But all children while in the mills were employed 66 hours a week, in spite of the law, and this was true of every mill in the city.*† The difficulty of complying with the legal limit of 10 hours a day for each child was, that the work running 11 hours the children must be there 11 hours to tend it. None are employed under 10 years old, “knowingly.” They work most of them in the

* “Observers will find in these communities houses for the families of workmen as comfortable and attractive as the occupants choose to make them, at a weekly rent not exceeding one-seventh or one-eighth of their wages; boarding and lodging houses for single men and women well ventilated, well supplied, at prices which leave a liberal margin for savings even in the dulllest seasons; societies for mutual relief in cases of sickness and distress, to which both workmen and employers contribute; reading-rooms and libraries also maintained by common contributions; facilities open for the most temperate, prudent and skillful to become owners of the houses they live in and of stock in the companies which employ them; the more intelligent workmen taking part in town affairs and serving as they may be able on school committees and boards of selectmen, and in many notable instances representing their fellow-workmen in the General Court.”—*From Boston Daily Advertiser of March 14, 1871.*

† It is true of mills in all parts of the State.

carding or spinning rooms, those working in the weaving rooms being merely "helpers," and coming in under care of weavers, are not recognized at all as children of the mill, and are not entered in the mill books. Endeavor not to employ any under 10 years of age, though may be deceived by parents misstating their years for the sake of having them employed.

Q. In reference to the moral habits of spinners the manager of a jute factory in Essex County said, that his experience had taught him that any grant of time from work to them was just giving them so much more time for idleness, riot, drunkenness and debauchery; that as a class he considered them worthless, intemperate and licentious; that it would be better to allow them only time to eat their meals and to sleep, and to keep them at work all the rest of the day, excluding them even from holidays. Has your experience with them been such as to confirm this bad name?

A. It has not, and I do not believe the statement to be just. As a whole they bear a good reputation; most of the intemperate persons with us are among the general laborers of the town, not operatives; they as a class being temperate. If intemperate habitually they are discharged, as it would not do to intrust them with delicate machinery. The only instances known to me personally were in our engine department. Have known none in the mill. Our Sabbaths are quiet days, though the attendance at church by operatives is very limited. On Sunday they walk about among the fields just outside of the town. The operatives are largely Catholics, and the attendance at their church is greater than elsewhere. Should estimate it at 3,000, mostly Irish. The English do not attend church. The French Canadians are Catholics and have a small chapel of their own. They are the least educated; very ignorant indeed. The attendance at Sunday school is increasing and the mission chapels in the suburbs are gathering in many children. But taking boys and girls above ten years of age, they can hardly be got into school on Sunday.

Being questioned about a male weaver's daily earnings, he thought he could earn about \$2 per day, or about \$600 a year, on which he could maintain self, wife and a child or two, paying from \$75 to \$100 a year for rent. But he would have little left at the year's end. Savings depend much on individual habits. The operatives are mostly young—taking extremes of age at 70 years, as some are, and the youngest,—a fair average of age would be about 35. Their work is incessant, and the \$600 is only secured by continuous, uninterrupted work. There must be neither sickness nor vacation. If there be either, that sum dwindles. The average annual

lost time of an operative he could not give, but it was very small. As mills are now built by us, factory labor is a healthful employment; yet, considering factory life in all its surroundings, social, moral, physical, intellectual and exacting, he would not select it as a life for a child of his own. He must associate with ignorant, uneducated persons, reared under no proper domestic training, rude and unrefined, and be exposed to language profane and often obscene. So far as health is concerned, it is as healthy an occupation as any sedentary, monotonous life, unrelieved by vacation or recreation year in and year out. This is true of all factory life, though with us it is better than in Rhode Island. Fall River is vastly better in respect to ventilation, light, cleanliness, improved machinery and many other matters, and these better surroundings make the work-people better in every way.

Remarks.

This testimony of Mr. Chase is frank and straightforward. He does not favor factory life to the extent of many witnesses who exert themselves to make out a case. His testimony is unreserved on the infraction of the child-hour law, and, in connection with other testimony, fully confirms the statements in recent reports on that subject, that the law is openly and defiantly violated. And it may as well be stated that it will continue to be so till more stringent means are provided for its enforcement. He, however, and many an agent and superintendent are in error, when they state that children under 10 years of age are not employed. We know they are; and we know that parents deceive overseers and overseers deceive superintendents and agents in this matter. A treasurer of a mill, or an agent, may issue his prohibitory order, but he cannot, without minute personal inquiry, know of its being obeyed. "He may," like Hotspur, "call spirits from the vasty deep," but he cannot be sure that they will answer the call. There are children employed there not over 8 years of age, if appearances do not deceive, or unless mill life and work 11 hours a day, have dwarfed the 12-year old down to less than 10. A puny child operative in Fall River was sent from a mill to wash a mop in a pond, and the mop, on being saturated with water, was too heavy for the child's strength and dragged it into the water, whence the little thing was taken out drowned. At the funeral her age was registered as 9 years. A boy was found,

belonging to another mill, old in features but small in stature, whose age we ascertained was 8 years. Most of those we saw reported themselves as “going on to 11 or 12 years.” The school law is obeyed, but not the 10 hour law for children between 10 and 15 years old.

Testimony of J. R. Perry, Agent of Everett Mills, Lawrence, Mass.; taken October, 1870.

Commenced at ten years of age in a cotton mill in Rhode Island. Have passed through all the departments, becoming superintendent, at thirty-seven years of age, of the Hamilton Manufacturing Company at Southbridge in this State, where I remained five years. After a brief interval became agent of the Everett Mills. The mills at Southbridge are an incorporated company, running about 46,000 spindles by water power on the Quinnebaug River, and employing about 900 persons. Between 1860 and 1865 many Americans, children of the farmers in the neighborhood, were to be found in these mills, though the majority were foreigners,—some English, some French Canadians, but a very large majority Irish. Family help is the most common; have known many instances where fathers, mothers and children, whole households, were in the mills at the same time. Hours of labor were 12 to 13 per day, children working all through the same as adults. The present time is 11½ hours for all. The boarding-house system does not prevail to any extent; the help are paid monthly, the pay-roll is made up to the last day of a month, and payment made on the 15th day of the following month, a fortnight's interest being thus saved on the amount of the roll. The company has a building which it lets for store purposes, and always favors the party hiring it by accepting orders on their operatives, and inducing new comers into town to trade there. The method practised is this: suppose I have hired and stocked this store; operatives buy of me on credit and run up a bill; I take an order to the amount of that bill to the counting-room of the mill, and when the pay-roll is made up the paymaster pays me its amount. The store is a general store, such as is usually found in country towns, and contains about everything,—meats, groceries, cloths and clothing, &c., &c. This paid order, with the bill, is on pay-day handed over to the operative as so much cash, and if it absorbs all he has earned for the month, the paymaster says, “There is nothing due you;” if there be a balance, however, it is paid in cash; if the payment due on the bill is greater than the operative's earnings, the order is handed back to the trader with the amount paid endorsed thereon, and he gets another order on

the next month's pay, the company guaranteeing nothing beyond its actual dues to the operative. Cases are quite common where orders exceed the amount of earnings, and the operatives are held, month after month and year after year, with these orders hanging over them, never seeing a penny of their earnings, and tied down with the clog of debt. It is my opinion that if I went there to-day to hire family help, not one family in ten could get away unless I gave them money to pay up, and then paid their passage from Southbridge to Lawrence. Wood and coal are bought and tenements are hired of the corporation, and the influence of the company seems to be exerted to keep its people confined to the town. Frequently pigs will be bought of the company, say a half dozen; these are fattened, killed and sold, and a little money raised in that way. No discount was made to the company for cashing orders, the hire of the store being considered sufficient compensation, nor were any orders accepted for payment excepting those handed in by the lessee of the company's store. In Lawrence we have nothing to do with orders, unless a person really insists upon it. If a man comes with his creditor and says, "I want to give this man an order on my wages for so much," and the company owes the debtor to that amount, then, for the accommodation of both parties, I consent. But if the creditor comes to me with an order, I say, "I know nothing about orders. I pay my help once a month; if honest, they will pay you; if not, you must look out for it yourself." Both parties must personally and together consent. If a person is destitute, and I know him to be so, and he comes to me for assistance, I generally advance the money, or give an order on a store to get goods. In such a case I take it from the wages when the month comes round, and if there is not enough due them to pay the whole, carry the balance to the next month's account. I have to do this on my own responsibility, as the corporation does not allow me to do anything of the kind. Sometimes I have been out \$800 or \$900 a month in that way.

So far as the schooling of children is concerned, in Southbridge, when notice was sent by the school committee, as many as could be spared were sent out of the mills; but nothing was done to see that the children sent out really went to school; in fact it would not do for an overseer of the company to interfere in the matter further than was directed by the agent if he would retain his place. The way to get rid of him would be by dropping him in a quiet way, his successor suddenly appearing and assuming his duties, with no explanation given and no formal discharge.

The highest pay of overseers is \$2 per day. Some of the hands

get \$1, but most of them 83 cents. Running as we did 310 days of the year, an overseer would earn \$620, on which he might maintain his family, but could not make much show, nor have many luxuries, nor make any savings. The operatives there were not paid as well, nor did they live as comfortably as they do in Lawrence. The company make the same goods as the Everett Mills, but from 25 to 35 per cent. cheaper. A library, given by the treasurer of the company, is the only means known to me for intellectual improvement

In answer to a question as to the moral influences of factory life, Mr. Perry said :—

I do not see that the influence of manufacturing is more unfavorable to growth of body, of mind and of morals than any other business. I think it is favorable upon the morals of the community. Comparing Lawrence with Southbridge in moral habits, I think, in proportion to numbers, the comparison would be in favor of Lawrence. In Lawrence we pay cash to the operatives and they can do as they please with it, and they may perhaps spend much of it unwisely. In Southbridge they get much less money, and yet they contrive to get up amusements worse than at Lawrence.

Of spinners as a class I believe them to be a rowdy, drinking, unprincipled set, and that any concession of time to them would only be wasted and rioted away. If they were kept at work 14 hours a day it would be better for them. They would die as quick one way as another. They will drink, and I don't know why. It is a good deal the same with dyers. Perhaps in their case the boiling drug creates an appetite. They are continually tasting the drugs, and that makes them thirsty. Mule spinners as a class are as miserable a set of men as we have upon earth. In running over the list of those whom I know, I cannot recall over half a dozen good citizens and good men in the community. Most of them are English, though the French are working in. As soon as boys learn the business, they run right into vice. Spinners are intelligent enough, but are very immoral; I should say that 90 per cent. of them were intemperate men. I don't know of anything in their employment that makes them so, though it is fatiguing work. They are combined together and have societies and places where they meet to pass resolutions, get rum and oysters and have a general good time; then they will go home drunk. They lose more or less time every month from drunkenness. I have three of them out now, and yesterday I saw two of them staggering towards their

boarding-house. Our rule is to discharge men for drunkenness, and we keep to that rule as well as we can and not have to stop the machinery.

Q. Your opinion then is that factory life is conducive to good morals in the cases of weavers, carders and dressers, but that spinners and dyers are immoral and intemperate, and that to keep them steady they must be kept at work as long as possible.

A. Yes, sir.

[*Query.*—Would not the carrying out of this suggestion give an overplus of “warp and filling yarn” in a given mill? The testimony in relation to spinners as a class, cannot, we think, be substantiated. Mr. Chase’s testimony, and that of an ex-agent of one of our largest mills, afford it no corroboration.]

We now append some facts gathered at Lowell, upon the matters of heat of rooms, ventilation, artificial light, working hours, &c., &c. The facts were gathered at our request and by personal inquiry and examination.

The Lowell Mills.

Heat of Rooms.

The heat of rooms in cotton mills will range from 70° to 80° when not lighted, and from 75° to 85° when lighted; and in some instances will reach 90°, and even higher. We are informed by an overseer in the weaving department of one of the largest in the city, that in summer the heat of his rooms is about 90°; that in winter it is 80° when not lighted, and 85° when lighted. An overseer in the employ of another manufacturing company says that the heat of his weaving rooms is 78° when lighted. A superintendent of a corporation says that the heat of the weaving and dressing rooms is 80° when not lighted, and 85° when lighted. The statements of the above gentlemen agree substantially with the statements of many others and with the results of our own observation.

In the woollen mills the heat is not so great, although in a mill devoted to the manufacture of fancy cassimeres, the superintendent said that the heat of the rooms is 76° when not lighted, and 80° when lighted. The heat of rooms in the mills of the largest woollen manufactories in the city ranges from 70 to 80 degrees. Inquiry has been made at several private

establishments engaged in the manufacture of woollen goods, and in no instance do we find that the thermometer stands below 65° at any time.

Ventilation.

The ventilation is not good, especially in the weaving rooms. The only means of ventilation is that afforded by the windows, and these have to be kept closed during the manufacture of woollen goods and of cotton goods of a fine texture.

Sanitary Condition.

The effect of the business of manufacturing upon the health of the operatives cannot be obtained except upon the acknowledged principles of hygiene, but, owing to the fact that the same set of operatives does not remain long in the same place, no reliable statistics can be had; constant change forbids it. For example: the changes in the weaving rooms of the Hamilton Manufacturing Company involve what is equal to an entire change of help in less than four months, and in the weaving rooms of the Massachusetts Cotton Mills, the change of help involves what is equal to an entire change once in eight months.*

What is true of the last named corporation is true of the Lawrence Manufacturing Company and the Merrimac Manufacturing Company: if you leave out of consideration the print works, you will have what is equal to an entire change of help in all of the departments in less than twelve months. The same is true of the Suffolk Manufacturing Company and of the Tremont Mills, although in all of the establishments in the city there are persons who have been steadily employed for years. Very few persons die while they are operatives, because, finding their health giving way under their toils and exposures, *they leave their employment and cease to be operatives.* And in but few instances would their deaths after that time be recorded as the deaths of operatives, although the diseases of which they died were contracted while they were in the manufacturer's employ, unless they died in the hospital of the cor-

* What reason can be assigned for this constant change? If working in a factory 11, 12, or more hours a day is so beneficial to health and to moral and intellectual progress and so remunerative, why do not the operatives stay longer in a given place? And, again, under such continuous change is there not great hindrance to advance in practical skill and consequent production?

porations. This hospital is an excellent institution, under the superintendence of Dr. John W. Graves, and is owned and sustained by the several manufacturing corporations of Lowell, for the comfort and convenience of the sick in their employ, who are admitted regardless of their ability to pay. The expenses per week of those who have the ability, are, for males, \$5; for females, \$4. But few of the operatives avail themselves of the benefits of this institution, most of them preferring the poverty of home to the luxury of charity.

All the corporations have boarding houses for their employés, which are well kept. The rules of the corporations require that the doors be locked at 10 o'clock, P. M. We are informed that large numbers of the operatives on many of the corporations do not board at the corporation houses, but live at a considerable distance from their work, yet they have allowed them but 45 minutes for dinner. The Lowell Bleachery furnishes an exception to this rule, allowing one hour for dinner. The carpet manufactory also allows the help one hour.

Average Age.

Some estimate the present average to be twenty years, some, twenty-three years, some thirty-three years. Upon this we can furnish no reliable information, nor upon the average age ten years ago.

Habits.

Some are of opinion that the habits of the operatives are good, though others say that they are bad, many claiming that they are not as good as they were years ago, when a different class of help was employed.

The habits of the mule spinners are fair; many of them, however, are addicted to the vice of intemperance.

Artificial Light.

In the manufacturing establishments of Lowell, artificial light is used 18 hours per week for 6 months in the year; that is, the time that artificial light is used in the year will amount to that, and to 9 hours per week on an average.

Number of Working Hours.

The number of working hours per week for women and children is 66. They work less than 11 hours on Saturday, but

the deficiency is made up on other days of the week. The Lowell Bleachery operatives work a little less than 63 hours per week. We are informed by one of the officers of that corporation, that they accomplish as much now, as under the 11 hour system, and that they have no idea of returning to it. Nearly all the private establishments work 66 hours per week.

Testimony of a Clergyman upon Factory Life, etc.

A clergyman long resident in a factory town, who has devoted a great deal of time and of careful observation for twenty years to the study of these two subjects, has sent to the Bureau his experience, from which we have condensed the following:—

In industry, enterprise, education, and wealth, Massachusetts has had a wide and merited renown. By her manufacturing enterprise she has achieved a great deal, even under a wage-system, and many good results have been secured. Besides yielding wealth, she has been able, heretofore, to show among her operative population men and women of good physical proportions, of intellectual cultivation and moral sensibilities, so that it seems difficult to reach the conclusion that the methods upon which this business is carried on are radically wrong, and, if continued, will produce deplorable results, yet the study of resultant facts leads undoubtedly to that conclusion.

It may be said we are constantly making *improvements* in our system of carrying on manufacturing interests; these have been almost innumerable; hardly a branch of business carried on by manufacturing enterprise that has not felt the magical touch of the inventor's skill; not infrequently by the invention of some new machine, or by an improvement in an old one, the labor of a dozen men is performed by one or two, until nearly every department of trade has felt the quickening power of such improvements. How spacious, too, the mills and shops now used for manufacturing purposes. Some of them are really elegant structures of colossal size, symmetrical, imposing, attractive, and beautiful enough to be the mansions of some distinguished nobleman or wealthy lord. The "*tenant houses*;" who has not seen their fine array on sloping hill-side, in seeming order, and with fair show of external comeliness of form, suitably adorned by paint? But he that stops to observe and stoops to learn, may clearly and easily perceive that this glitter of external show but imperfectly covers the misery and want, degradation and wrong within, that call loudly for redress.

I have stood where I could see the rustling throng issue from a mill as the bell rang, and the gates were thrown open; and what I saw were no longer manly men, but men of stooping forms and hopeless faces; women, dispirited, slovenly and aimless; and children, "the hope of the country," only such forlorn hope as those whose elasticity was early gone, whose childish merriment was collapsed, whose eyes were dull, and whose cheeks were pale—the embryos of an emasculated adulthood—the whole crowd, where once were seen fine specimens of manhood, now a sorry spectacle of overtaken, exhausted and despondent humanity—veritable "mudsills of society." Such is now the sight, where I have looked. The improvements have been of machinery, and not of humanity. They have benefited the capitalist and not the laborer.

The operative-houses, also, which have fallen under my observation, and of which I have read loud praises, do not merit the commendation, being ill-contrived, cramped for room, unventilated, uncomfortable and no fit resting places for persons fatigued by long hours spent over exacting machinery. They seem to be managed with almost no regard for the comfort or health of those who live in them, and whose labor is measured out to them by steam or water-power unremittedly, day after day, through the continuous year. One hardly wonders at it when he hears instances of intentional hurt to some limb, as a cheap purchase for relaxation from work. Humanity must be cheap, with men made for machinery, and not machinery for men, where such a system is fostered, and fostered at the expense of manhood, which itself should be of the very noblest, if the State would itself preserve its own nobility.

The system of wage, also, which always means a system of inadequate compensation, is another element of injustice. Thousands of men and women who are the producers of wealth, receive of that wealth the baldest means of keeping life alive. I know a man whose income is five hundred dollars a day, while five hundred of his men have not, at the expiration of five years, been able, all together, to save five hundred dollars.

But another evil has grown out of this system. It is the creation, in a more permanent and obstinate form, of caste. This grows out of the introduction of the new, lower grade of laborers. It has now become chronic. Formerly, when the American element of school-taught girls was the operative class, we heard of their marrying clergymen, teachers and men of means. Is it so now? By no means, for antagonism is now the rule, and affiliation is not only not the exception, but it is never the fact, and in matters of kindness of intercourse, my experience has taught me that there

is a great change for the worse. I once knew a wealthy manufacturer who personally visited and looked after the comfort of his invalid operatives, but I know of no such cases now. He was acquainted with his employés, but now the intervention of middlemen (overseers) separates between the two, and the chief, leaving details to them, from the necessity of discipline, has little or no knowledge of the subordinates.

Doubtless a wage system might be managed equitably and favorably to both parties, moving up and down as profit moves. It is claimed by some employers that they practise this, but I have not known it to be done in a harmonious and reciprocal action of intercommunication. The employer, having his natural advantage as capitalist, in time of high profit may, and sometimes does, make an advance in wage, but the flow and ebb of wage is not in proportion to the flow and ebb of profit. Nor is wage, even to the highest wage recipients, in fair proportion to the salaries of officials, the latter being in some instances as high as \$15,000 to \$25,000, in dull times taking large shares of the small profits made. In one of our manufacturing cities, profits were so great during the war, that some individual owners realized more wealth in five years than all the operatives had been able to save in a half century, and from it added mill to mill, and have continued to do so to this day, as the only means of disposing of their accumulations. As cause of recent reduction of wage, they give, what is undoubtedly true, *present* lack of profit, and base all their movements on the existing state of trade. That is all fair enough, but it would have been just, also, had they paid proportionally high when profit was high. This non-doing is a leading cause of dissatisfaction, and makes the laborer angry with the employer and generates alienation and strikes. And when these take place, it seems as though the whole force of public opinion, through the public press, through all the channels of trade and profession, is brought to bear against these "disturbers of the peace," as they are usually called.

Beyond question, politics in this country is largely controlled, and will yet be vastly more controlled, by capital. A governor of a State once told the writer that he had hardly ever known an election to go contrary to the dictation of a leading manufacturer in that State, and the same influence exerted by his successor, controls to this day. Is there no danger that corporate capital will, as it grows in strength, enlarge its political influence, till both national and State policy shall be subdued to its bidding? But returning to wage, would the method by which capital determines the price of labor be assented to in any other class of employment? Would

editors, lawyers, doctors, ministers or tradesmen, or separate craftsmen agree to be governed by it? No; there is an inherent fault somewhere, and the only cure, I think, is in an acknowledge reciprocity of interests, in discussion of mutual claims, and in conciliation and arbitrament.

The testimony next following gives an inside view of operative life at home and at mill, and will be new to most readers not resident in factory towns. The names of the witnesses are withheld at their request, for fear that their testifying might cause their discharge and consequent loss of support.

Testimony of a Mule Spinner.

Am English born and have been a spinner since ten years of age; have a wife and two children; herself and a child, 12 years old, work in the mill, both weaving; the wife, with the girl's help, tends 10 looms, running 156 picks per minute; some tend 8, some 7, if without child-help.* Wife and child leave the house, 4 days of the week, at 6.20 in the morning, and do not return till about 7.30 at night. Wednesdays and Saturdays they leave home at 5.30 A.M., and on Saturdays get home at about 4.15 P.M., so that they are absent from home on 4 days of each week 13 hours 10 minutes; Wednesday of each week 14 hours; Saturday of each week 10 hours 45 minutes, making for absence from home each week, 77 hours and 25 minutes. Of this time they occupy about 3 hours going and returning, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ in eating dinner at the mill, as they never go home to do that.

[They are, then, really in the mill 74 hours 25 minutes per week, an average of 12 hours 24 minutes a day. Of which 69 hours and 55 minutes are given to work, being an average of 11 hours and 39 minutes per day under an 11-hour system.]

For breakfast we manage thus: I get up at 5 o'clock and let wife and children lie while I get the meal ready, then they get up, we eat and start for mill.

Q. You mean to say you get the breakfast and not she? A. Yes, sir. Q. Who gets your dinner? A. We make it and put it in the pails over night, because we have no time in the morning. I take my dinner to the mill and eat it there, then I run home and do a little choring, chop wood and the like of that, to get ready for

* At Bleyburg, a manufacturing town in the province of Liege, in Belgium, "mothers are not allowed to labor beyond the precincts of the town dwellings and gardens," the men's wages being so calculated as to be sufficient for support of the family."—Thurlow.

the night. I have bread and meat and a little pie,—the same as wife has. I get home at 7 o'clock, and help along supper until she gets home, and then it will take us both until half past 7 to get ready to commence on the supper, and we get through supper about eight o'clock. Q. In the summer time you have a little daylight, and in the winter none at all? A. Yes, sir. Q. Does what you now describe agree with your mill life in England before you came here? A. No; In England we could go to our dinners. Q. Wife, child and all? A. The wife didn't work all the time. When she did, she went home to dinner. A good many there keep the old folks at home, and they generally do the work. Q. Is this the common way in which operatives in your town live? A. Yes, sir. Q. All of them? A. Yes, sir. Q. Through all the mills? A. Yes, sir; those that have wives—that go to the mill. Q. They all live pretty much as you now describe? A. Yes, sir; all the difference will be, some of them put up their dinners in the morning, and I put ours up at night. The dinner stands in the pails from the night time until the next noon? Q. What time do you get home on Saturday afternoon? A. Four o'clock; we leave off at 1-4 before 4. Q. How do you employ the time on Saturday afternoon? A. Cutting wood and choring round; odds and ends. Q. How do you employ yourselves on Sundays? Give a general description of the life of factory people on Sunday. A. Some different from others, of course; I generally lay in bed until about 7 o'clock Sundays. Then we both get up and get the children ready for Sunday school and send them to school, and then it takes wife and me about all the time to wash, clean and scrub up the house, and cook the extra dinner for Sunday, so we can have a comfortable meal. We have warm dinners on Sunday. In the afternoon we sometimes take a nap. Then I get supper, and take a walk round and get myself ready for Monday morning again. Q. You describe the common factory life on Sunday? A. So far as I am concerned it is about so. Q. Why do you not attend church on Sunday? A. I really have not time, because if I went to church, my woman would have all the work to do, and it would take her all the day Sunday, and that would be seven days' work, and I would be resting and she working, and so I stay at home and help her, and we get through just in time for dinner, and then we take a nap and take a walk in the afternoon. Q. Was that your way in England? A. Yes, sir. Q. You didn't attend church there? A. No, sir. Q. Do the factory people of England, as a general thing, attend church? A. No, sir; I do not suppose they do; the majority do not, anyway. They are too tired, I suppose, though when we had

ten hours a day we had considerable more time than we have now. In England we had even more, because we had no wood to chop; we burnt coals and we could kindle them with paper, and then we had taps in the sink and got water from them, but here, we have to fetch water; we have to fetch it from 100 to 200 yards in some places. There we had taps on the sink for cleaning water and drinking. I don't think they have taps ever in boarding-houses in our town. Q. Your children attend Sunday school? A. Yes, sir. Q. When does your wife do the mending for the family? A. She does it at night after we have had supper. Q. Did you marry a factory girl? A. Yes, sir; she was brought up in a factory from 8 years of age. Q. What opportunities had she had at any time during her life to acquire a knowledge of household work? A. I don't know that she had much. Factory girls can only learn cooking, washing, mending and housework after they get home from mill, and at no other time. I don't know as they are as apt at these things as out-of-mill girls who live at home or service. They cook plain food pretty well. My wife lets out the washing, (she has to) at 70 cents a dozen. Q. Describe your house. A. My house is one in a 4-tenement block. My kitchen in which we live is 15 by 14 feet and 8 feet high, with a single room, used also as a closet, 4 by 3. I have two bed-rooms 9 by 7, and 8 feet high, and two attic rooms which come down low on the sides. There is a cellar also, in which we keep wood and coal and put our food. The privies and a common well and common yard for drying clothes, are between the two blocks. I leave my youngest child at home, she is 10 years old; she gets her own breakfast from what we leave for her on the table. Then she washes herself, or comes to the mill and I wash her. At a little before 9 o'clock she goes to school and then comes to me at the house when I go from the mill after 12 o'clock, to job around a little. She eats for dinner what is left in my pail. I go back to mill leaving her at the house till about 2 o'clock, when she again goes to school. After school she comes to me at mill, and I give her the house-key. She goes home, unlocks and waits for us to come home. My wife has worked in a mill all the time since marriage except when confined. Our children took care of themselves after about five years old. Before that, grandmother looked after them. That was when we were in England. She is now dead. Q. How near their time of confinement have you known pregnant women to work in a mill? A. To within six weeks or much less, and to return to their looms in four weeks after confinement. But that is not common; 10 or 12 weeks is more common on each side of confinement. Q. At what age of children

do factory mothers leave them to go back to the mill? *A.* English people leave them from 5 to 12 months old. *Q.* Is what you describe the general custom of factory-parents. *A.* Yes, sir; they leave them same as I do. The largest portion of English married people work in the mill, and do with their children as I do. *Q.* Do they do this all the year round? *A.* Yes, sir; winter and summer. *Q.* But in the winter it is dark before 5 o'clock, P. M.; what does a child at home do till the parent gets home after 7 o'clock? *A.* It lights the lamp and waits; mine does.*

Testimony of another Spinner.

Am 25 years old, married; family consists of self, wife, my mother and two children. Commenced in a spinning-room in England in 1852, when 7 years old, working *half a day* and going to school the other half. [That is the custom now in England. Such children are called *half-timers*. They will be spoken of hereafter.] The mills ran 12 hours, but the children only worked half-time, so called, though they were in the mills 5 to 6 hours a day,—in school 3 hours. From 13 to 18 they worked 10 hours, the men over 18 working as long as they liked, and the grown women working what was called “minor-male-work,” or 10 hours a day. My wife works in a mill, same hours as given by the other witness, but has farther to walk. She leaves home about 6 o'clock, A. M., and gets back at about 7.15 to 7.30, P. M., being allowed 45 minutes for dinner, which she takes at the mill, less 5 to 15 minutes for cleaning and oiling her machinery. Some do it at dinner-time, some contrive to do it at other times, but it must be done. We carry our dinners in tin pails (a little cold meat, a piece of pie and some bread), and eat them at mill, with the same comfort that a horse eats his in the shafts on the street. Mother keeps house for us, and looks after the young ones. On Saturdays we have to work 45 minutes at noon time clearing up. Children in the mule-rooms do the same. *Q.* Are there any children employed in your mill under 10 years of age? *A.* I do not want to answer that question; it might be injurious to me. I got into trouble last fall and had to suffer by being kept out

* The following item from a Fall River paper shows the great peril of all this system, by which small children are left as described by the witness:—

“*Child Burned to Death.*—A distressing accident recently occurred at Bowenville, near Fall River, by which a little girl, daughter of Mr. Edward Chapman, about two years old, was burned to death in consequence of its clothes taking fire, while its parents were at work in the mills. It was literally burnt from the crown of its head to the soles of its feet, surviving but about three hours. A passer-by was attracted to the house by the cries of children, caught up the burning child, carried it out of doors and rolled it in the snow. The only words it uttered after being taken into the house, were, ‘O, my papa!’ ”

of work 4 months. But the children are sent out for schooling three months a year, according to law. It is done in this way,—a boy works 9 months and is sent out, or he works less and is sent out, as is convenient for his overseer, according to the help he has. He keeps enough to run his mules steadily, and arranges also for their legal schooling. He could not do otherwise under our legal system. A much better plan for the children would be the English half-time daily-school plan. *Q.* How do operatives spend their out-of-mill time? *A.* What little time operatives have out of the mill is spent at home, so far as I know. *Q.* Are they, as a class, temperate? *A.* There are but few that I know that I should call drunkards. Those that drink, drink mostly beer. As a class I should call them temperate. But I do not go much among them. I spend my spare time at home. But I call them temperate. You must know that English people have the name of drinking beer, as the Germans drink lager. All drink it, and all have a jug of beer in the house for common use. They make it at home, of malt, hops and sugar, and a man may drink 3 or 4 quarts of it a day without its hurting him. I don't mean all at once, but in some hours, and be steady. Everywhere in England all classes drink it, yet I should not call them drunkards. They are a set of beer-drinkers. *Q.* Is there much reading done by the spinners in England? *A.* In England now, on this present system of short hours (I can speak for the town I came from; I left there when I was between 17 and 18 years), they have what they have not here,—young men's institutes, where you go and learn all kinds of education that can be learned for any state of life. They assemble there every night; it is open free, with the exception that you pay one shilling, or 24 cents, a month as a contribution, the year round. They are classed out in different classes according to the different kinds of education. There are teachers to teach them, and there are libraries. There are public institutes in every town where I lived, and I could speak for half a dozen towns where they have one in each town. There is one of them,—that is, what they call a public institute,—in 'most every town; in every town where there is 10,000 people there is one. Then there are small reading-rooms. I suppose there are half a dozen places, four times as big as this room, in one town, where you can go any part of the day and stay there, and play checkers or draughts; these are to keep you off of the street and from getting into bad company; and then they have night-schools. I think if the hours were shorter the men would use their time to good advantage. *Q.* Is there any reading-room in your town? *A.* Yes, sir, one—for anybody. *Q.* Who established it? *A.* The

Young Men's Christian Association. *Q.* Is there any connected with any factory? *A.* No, sir. *Q.* Is there any library connected with any factory? *A.* Not one, sir, unless it is among the owners themselves; none for the operatives certainly. *Q.* Has there ever been, to your knowledge, any means taken for the instruction of the operatives in such a manner as you have just described as having been done in England? *A.* No, sir, not any. *Q.* Has there ever been, to your knowledge, any means of improvement, of intellectual, educational improvement for the operatives? *A.* No, sir. *Q.* Have there ever been any lectures on common subjects that the operatives could attend free, provided by the mills? *A.* No, sir. *Q.* Have the mills, so far as you know, ever interested themselves in the educational improvement of their operatives? *A.* You mean the operatives wholly, or the children? *Q.* The operatives. *A.* No, sir; no further than when the Young Men's Christian Association was started, they brought circulars and tried to persuade the people to go; but for any mill bringing one forward, or instigating one, they never have done it, all through the city. *Q.* Did they subscribe towards the expense of this? *A.* I could not say. *Q.* Have the cotton spinners any library or reading-room of their own? *A.* They have, sir, which they pay for out of their earnings, and some benevolent gentlemen have helped them. *Q.* That is controlled by your association? *A.* By the officers of the Mule Spinners' Association. *Q.* How large a proportion of the mule spinners belong to this association? *A.* I should say 350 out of 480. *Q.* Does your knowledge, so far as it goes, agree with the statements of the last witness in regard to married people with children of 13 and 10 years of age,—in regard to going to work? *A.* It does in regard to parties that do as he does, that take wife, or send the wife to the mill. In those instances it is so as he states, but in a great many instances they have the same as I have. I suppose if I did not have my mother in the house I would have to let my child go out to nurse. Englishmen have the reputation of sending their wives to work more than anybody else; it is because the men do not earn money enough to support their families in the way they ought to be supported. I know families where the man and his wife have to go to work, and he sends his smallest child to some old lady he is acquainted with, and pays so much for nursing it, and the rest go to school and run from school to the place where the infant is boarded and get their victuals, the father and mother working all day in their mill.

Q. What other associated methods have you? *A.* We join together and buy family supplies. The plan commenced in this

way. Seven of us worked in one mill, and when groceries were so high we could hardly live, we got talking about it, and devised a plan so that by putting our dimes and dollars together in one pile, we could buy our supplies cheaper, and divide them according to our contributions. Each man calculated what his family would consume in a month, and how much he must put in. We made up \$98. This was afterwards increased to \$150. We had a secretary and he footed up all we wanted, and then a man was deputed to purchase. We then hired an old tenement, put the goods there, and divided. If the goods you ordered cost less than you paid in, the balance was paid back to you; if they cost more, you made it up. This we called the Mule Spinners' Coöperative Store. Several more have been started since by other operatives. We tried something like it in clothing, with the difference that we arranged with the dealers to buy of the one who would allow the most discount. This settled, the dealer served us out tickets, and when we wanted clothing we went to him and bought at the discount. On clothing we got 10 per cent. off, and on drapery and dry goods we got 12 per cent. On furniture, boots and shoes, we got 6 per cent. This was by always trading with the same party.*

Q. What are the average wages of a spinner in your town?

A. \$10.50 to \$11 a week. Q. How much time will he lose a month? A. I think about two days a month from sickness, rest, &c., &c.; so that he loses about one-twelfth of his pay every month of 26 working days. (This would give him, at \$11 a week, about \$525 a year.)

* There are ten dividing stores in Fall River at the present time (February 27, 1871), doing a business of \$9,000 to \$10,000 per month. Each of these stores is independent of the others, but all of them are conducted on the same plan, which is as follows:—

Each association is governed by a board of directors, one-third retiring and being replaced by others every month.

There is also a committee consisting of as many members as the requirements of the store demand, called the *dividing or serving-out* committee. Its duties are to divide the goods among the several members, according to the orders in the books given by each member. The officers of the association are—President, Vice-President, Treasurer and Secretary.

The members bring in their books on a day appointed by the association; the secretary takes the books and copies the orders from them, making up a total amount of the different articles required. The list is then handed to the person appointed to make the purchase, in accordance with the wish of a majority of the members present at the regular monthly meeting, when the purchaser is chosen, the majority deciding where the purchase shall be made.

Seven days after bringing in his order-book, each member brings in the probable amount of cash that his goods will cost. The day after the money is invested the purchaser purchases the goods, and they are served out to the members. A small percentage (about three per cent. on all purchases) is charged, to pay the working expenses of the store. [BUREAU.]

Q. Do you know of any operative who owns house and land purchased by his earnings? *A.* My brother owns a place but did not purchase it from his earnings. He was a soldier and bought it with his bounty money. I have myself, out of my earnings and those of my wife, bought about three acres of land, at \$500 for the whole, and this, with about \$200 at interest, or \$700 in all, we have saved in five years. But we were too saving, and now consequent sickness from overwork and starved living is using it up. From \$525 to \$550 a year would be about a yearly pay before the late reduction. Filling spinners earn more than warp spinners. I put my earnings at \$46 a month, or \$552 a year, barring sickness—working right through.

Q. What proportion of the factory working-people are in debt? *A.* More than half of them; and they are so from cheap pay and long hours, and will always be so with such pay and hours.

Q. How great distance in miles do you yourself walk each day in tending your mill work? *A.* I have calculated it at 39 miles. The average would be less. It is according to the length of your frames. The average would be over 30 miles.

Q. How many miles do the children walk who tend mules? *A.* The back-boys walk 12 to 15 miles, and the doffers 15 to 20, each day of 11 hours. These children are from 10 to 12 years old.*

Q. As a general thing do spinners who have non-working families save anything at the year's end. *A.* No, sir; they cannot. If he has been married 15 or 20 years, and has raised children who work in a mill, they can all together save a little; but if he is so unlucky as not to have any, he cannot. While these children are growing he can't save. There are people all round me who can hardly be said to *live*, though they must scratch out some kind of a living. *Q.* What proportion of spinners are owners of real estate in your town, bought by their earnings? *A.* There is no propor-

* This statement is more than confirmed by those in Philip Grant's "History of Factory Legislation" (Manchester, 1866), pp. 57-58. He says:—"I stated at the meeting of members of parliament and delegates of operatives, that a child who follows the spinning travels a distance of *nearly thirty miles in twelve hours.*" This statement seeming incredible, Mr. Grant gives the calculation. Mr. Fielden, member for Oldham, in his work on "The Curse of the Factory System" (1836, before the ten-hour law), tested the matter himself, personally, in his own works. He says: "To my surprise I found the distance not less than 20 miles in 12 hours, my machinery not being driven at anything like the speed under which the former calculations were made. I stood by a child with a clock before me, and found the number of times that she walked certain distances in a given time. I knew those distances, and upon them calculated the whole distance that she would walk that day, working 12 hours, being careful to keep my calculation under the truth rather than over it."

tion about it at all. Those that have it bought it with bounty money and savings out of their army pay. They enlisted for fear of being drafted in the war. There are a few such, but I do not know any that own mill stock.

Q. Taking spinners as a class, have they some education? Can most of them read and write? *A.* I think about two-thirds of them can. But the children who go to school will be better off. A half-time school would be better still, because they would be earning wages and going to school at the same time; and everybody says half-time scholars are good scholars. [The witness here described the half-time system, his testimony differing somewhat from other witnesses on this subject. The system he described was similar that of the Indian Orchard Mills, Springfield. Under that system it would require about one-quarter more children to run the mills with the school than is now required to run it without. See pages 496, 497.—BUREAU.]

Q. What is the sanitary condition of the neighborhoods where the operatives live? *A.* Not very healthy, where I live. Our slop waste-water goes down the sink-spout into the privy vault, which is about 12 feet from the house, and stands in an open space accessible to all the families in the blocks, there being two of these standing back to back. In this same space is the common well and clothes-yard. In our waste-pipes we have no stench-traps to stop the drain and privy smell coming into the room. Where I live we cook, wash and do all housework in one room, and then wash the floor to keep clean, and that makes it damp. Three of the houses have a separate kitchen and what they call a front-room to live in. In the centre of the town they are very bad about health. I would not live in them, but some have to. Outside they are newer houses, are better; in fact are all good. They are all wooden, not brick like those at Lawrence, Lowell and Manchester, and they don't have the same conveniences, but yet are an improvement.

Q. What are the common diseases with you? *A.* Fevers; slow fever and typhoid have raged a good deal up our way. It is called a sickly part of the city. Outside it is better and pretty healthy. *Q.* Are there instances of two or more families living in the same tenement? *A.* Not many that I know of, though in my block there is a family of 14 persons having 5 rooms in all and some attics. *Q.* Is there danger with you from unboxed shafting. *A.* We have no shafting; we run by belts, and it is all boxed in. But more accidents happen than is right, because the machinery has to be cleaned while running. It is generally the taking off of

a finger; those hurt are generally children. I have never known one killed, though they have just cleaned it.* Q. Do they use the patent elevator, which closes the opening on each floor as it passes? A. I never saw one there. Q. What is the method of escape in case of fire? A. Quite good everywhere. I think women could use them. They are put right up at the side of the mills, with a landing at every story. But the mill-doors open inwards, and if a crowd got against them, they could not be opened to get out.

Q. Have you ever been discharged for participating in a strike or labor movement? A. No, sir. Q. Have you known others to be so discharged? A. Yes, sir. Q. Has any employer ever interfered, directly or indirectly, to your knowledge, to prevent your getting work elsewhere, or preventing anybody else? A. I don't want to answer that question. A man must live, you know. Q. Have you ever known an industrious, temperate operative to be in actual distress, from want of work or any other cause, so as to require help? A. Yes, sir, I have, but was helped by relatives. Q. Do your people attend public worship generally? A. No, sir,

* An instance is recorded in a late paper, in which a girl's hair was caught by the main shaft in an old mill, and wound up, taking off her scalp, she dropping by her weight. A similar one in England took the scalp and both ears of another girl.

There are accidents from unprotected machinery in old establishments all over the State. There is no law requiring protection. See the following from the "Amesbury Villager" of March 9, 1871. "A shocking accident occurred at the Bartlett mill in Newburyport, on Thursday morning. The Herald says that a little girl not quite 11 years of age, named Mary Catherine Mernick, was in the mill to learn how the work was done, and wishing to pick up some bobbins near a shaft revolving about a foot and a half from the floor, her dress was caught in the end of the shaft, which was making 165 revolutions a minute, and her clothing was instantly wound around the shaft and she was dashed against the floor at every revolution, beating out her brains and breaking her neck and skull, killing her outright. The hands in the room tried to release the girl, but were unable to accomplish anything until the engine was stopped."

And the following, respecting an accident at Salem, and at Union City, Ct.:

"Yesterday afternoon a young man named George H. Teague met with a severe accident, and had a narrow escape from death at the jute factory on English Street, in which he was employed. He stooped to pick up something from the floor, when his clothing became entangled in some machinery, and he was partially drawn into the gearing. A large piece of flesh was torn from his leg, one arm was pretty badly bruised and he received internal injuries, but he will probably recover."

"*A Lady's Scalp torn from her Head.*—A terrible accident occurred on Wednesday morning at E. F. Smith's button factory at Union City, Ct. One of the girls employed at a press stooped down to pick up some buttons which had been dropped, when her hair was caught in the shafting and her entire scalp torn from her head. It was a frightful spectacle, and a singular fact was that the girl did not even faint. The name of the young lady is Hattie Thomas. The entire scalp was removed from the forehead to the back of the neck, leaving the skull perfectly bare and taking off half of one ear. A physician was called, and reached her about an hour and a quarter after the accident. He clipped the hair from the scalp as soon as possible, replaced it and sewed it on. The doctor has some doubt as to its growing in place, as it was nearly cold when put on."

we send the children to Sunday school, but the grown-up folks don't go. The English about wholly neglect church. A minister once asked me the reason, and I told him that going to church wasn't pleasant, because even there we were made to feel the difference between a good coat and a poor one. I said I was brought up to go to Sunday school and to church, and went in England, but after I got here, folks were different. I suppose if I was going to die, I should have to own to some kind of belief, but as churches run here, I don't like to go. If working people were always treated kindly by those above them, they would go; but as it is these folks that run the churches take no pains whatever to elevate us in any way.

Q. Is there a hospital at your place, as at Lowell, for disabled or sick operatives? *A.* A hospital? no, sir. I have lived there seven years and never heard of such a thing. If a body is hurt, he must look out for himself. A girl in my room was hurt by her finger being caught in a wheel, and she had to be kept at home a month, losing all that time and wages, and I paid the doctor's bill. I never knew anything different. *Q.* Have you ever known children to suffer corporal chastisement of any form, from an overseer? *A.* I don't like to say. *Q.* What opportunity have your for recreation of any sort? *A.* None by day, excepting on the legal holidays, and at night, those that come along are not very edifying, and I do not like to go to them, even if I could afford it.

[Refined amusements have hitherto been held at what, to work-people, is too dear a price, while the necessities pressing upon them, both from the cost of subsistence and the length of a day's work,—long hours to earn small pay,—keep them out from any completeness of education when young, and from any rational and refining amusements when engaged in the toil of life-business. And here, if apt to the general subject, might be interposed an argument for continued and systematic courses of instructive lectures, as well as for refined amusements and recreations, accessible, both in price and locality, to persons of small means. And we think that no recreation can be given to better advantage in both these points than that of *music*, for those who could join and help in the giving would be easily found, and easily trained, among those who should be of the very class to be benefited; and he would take rank with such generous and noble men as Lowell for Boston, and White for Lawrence, in their establishment of free lectures for the people of those cities, who should establish courses of free lectures and concerts for the people.—BUREAU.]

CHILDREN IN FACTORIES.

This subject, the importance of which cannot be overestimated, has continued to enlist the interest of this department, and although the enforcement of the statute is placed by the law in other hands (in its present form it never can be enforced), we have omitted no opportunity to aid the officer who has it in charge, and to apprise him whenever cases of its infraction came to our knowledge. The law declares (chap. 285 Acts of 1867), that no child under the age of ten (10) years shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment in the Commonwealth, and that no child between 10 and 15 years of age shall be so employed, unless he shall have attended school at least three months in each and every year, 60 whole days, or 120 half days being the equivalent of said three months. It moreover declares that no child under 15 years of age shall be employed over 60 hours in any one week. On learning, as we did in the summer of 1870, that children were employed in the Fall River mills 11 hours a day, and 66 hours a week, the legal limits being 10 and 60, we notified the chief constable, who referred our letter to Captain J. W. Denny, now having the matter in charge. By his direction Deputy State Constable W. C. Thomas, in charge of Bristol County, made inquiries at the several mills, and returned reply as follows:—

OFFICE OF DEPUTY-CONSTABLE OF THE COMMONWEALTH, }
(In charge of Bristol County,) }
FALL RIVER, MASS., September 26, 1870. }

Maj. EDWARD J. JONES, *Constable of the Commonwealth.*

DEAR SIR:—A letter from Capt. J. W. Denny, of date Sept. 25th, was received on Saturday evening. I have attended to its requirements, and report as follows:—

I have visited the Linen and Tecumseh mills, and have stated my business. Of the facts, as stated by your letter, they make no denial, and I have for a long time known the same state of facts to exist in *all the mills in Fall River*, and I am credibly informed in all, or nearly all, throughout the State. During a period of some eighteen months the mills have tried the ten hour system, and were entirely satisfied with it, except that they lost eleven per cent. of labor, and could not compete with mills in other parts of the State. The owners here are a unit in favor of the ten hour system, as soon as it is adopted by other Massachusetts mills.

It is a fact that all parts of a manufactory are so closely con-

nected, and so dependent upon each other, that if they release the children with sixty hours per week, they must also release grown persons. All express a readiness to comply with the law when the thing is made *universal, otherwise they prefer to test the matter*. The reason they give for this is, that if one mill closes earlier than another the help will all leave and go to the mills where they can work the most hours, and thereby (those who work by the piece) make the most money. I have been asked to write you thus, that you might see the exact state of the matter. The owners also feel that after the long and tedious strikes just ended, it is hard to have to contend with the Commonwealth,* and think the enforcement of the statute will tend to make it more difficult to procure help, and will drive laborers to other States. I am asked, before the matter is brought into court, to request you, through your officers, to ascertain whether this violation is not general throughout the State, and if so, whether a general order cannot be issued to all the mills at one time by you.

Have been treated with uniform courtesy and kindness in all; never been refused admission into any of the mills.

Awaiting instructions, I am, sir,

Your obedient servant,

WM. C. THOMAS, D. C. C.

That part of the law which demands three months' schooling in each year for the children is well complied with at Fall River, while that part which limits their work to 10 hours a day, or 60 a week, is openly and avowedly violated, and the treasurers decline to obey till they are assured that it is obeyed throughout the State,—an assurance not easy to obtain, as any one must know. Nor is it easy, if possible, to get suit brought by law officers. In the case mentioned in Senate document No. 144, 1869, p. 18, of two overseers in the Naumkeag Mills, at Salem, where the sentence of the police judge was appealed from, the district-attorney for the county of Essex, into whose hands the case then went, has never brought the case before the court. Other instances have occurred where it was not possible to get an action brought.

We have returns from 73 woollen mills of the State, giving a total of 182 adults that can neither read nor write, and of 464 children, of whom but 180 are reported to have been sent out

* See page 87.

to school, and 284 that have not been so sent out. In one single mill of these, are 33 children, none of whom have had their legal schooling; in another, 31; in two others, 15 each, and in three others, 20 each, all similarly defrauded. In others, more merciful, are respectively, 23, 18, 27, 13 and 25 children, who are said to have received their educational rights. It is remarkable that cases are reported where all the children are given as having received their regular schooling, and yet none of them can read or write!

The corporal chastising of factory children, once well known to be practised by overseers in English mills, and in a variety of ingenious methods, is not unknown in our own mills. During the past eighteen months several such cases have been reported to us by the city marshals of factory towns. In several cases action for assault was brought against the overseer at the police court, and fines imposed for the offence.

As a purely educational matter, it would seem to be a function of the educational authorities of the State, and of the several local school committees. But an objection to this is, that local school boards in manufacturing centres are not superior to the influence of strong corporations, or powerful individual manufacturers, and that where they should attempt to enforce the statute, they would stand a chance of being displaced at the next election, and their seats occupied by less troublesome persons. In some instances, as is credibly reported, *overseers of the very mills that violate the law, are placed upon school committees for the very purpose of making things go easy.* On mature reflection, therefore, and a careful noting of the working of the present statute, we give it up as wholly useless, and recommend in its place the English system of "Half-time Schools," under which factory children attend school 3 hours each day, working in the mill an average of $5\frac{1}{2}$ hours for 5 days in the week, and an average of $3\frac{3}{4}$ hours on Saturday. Here we work them 11 hours per day; but even if this is insisted upon, the half-time school would be better for the children. When questioned on this subject, parties in superintendence of mills declare that they intend and endeavor to have the law regarded, but an endeavor is not compliance, nor is directing overseers, or others having charge, to observe the law, nor are posters put up in mills containing orders to

obey the law anything but empty words, and words used for no other purpose than to give the ability to say, "we are law-abiding people and endeavor to comply with the laws." The whole thing is a farce, and the law mere words,

———"full of sound and fury,
Signifying nothing."

It might as well be swept, with other meaningless statutes, clean away from the book, to make room for some practicable and resolute law of intentional purpose. With the exception of Fall River, Salem and Indian Orchard (Springfield), there is neither obedience nor system, while elsewhere, as a general rule, the provision for both school-time and mill-time of these hapless younglings is disregarded, and will probably continue to be disregarded. If Massachusetts really intends to protect and educate these children, she must abandon the old and inaugurate an entirely new system. Of such we will speak hereafter. To create such a system and to put it in operation would demand appropriate legislation, and much anterior arrangement of detail. Reference of the whole matter to a commission, to decide upon a plan, would enable the legislature to enter upon the consideration of the subject with better ability to act wisely in the premises. The legislative Committee on Education, or the State Board of Education, would, either of them, seem appropriate to devise a system that would meet the exigency. Something efficient must be done, and done quickly and effectively, for ignorance in the manufacturing towns is on the rampant increase. We venture to assert that never till within these last few years, could it be said, *that in a single establishment of about 1,600 working people in one town in Massachusetts, there were more than 800 that could neither read nor write!!* And this ignorant horde is daily augmented by the imported influx of tens of thousands of thoroughly ignorant emigrants,—paupers, many of them, as declared by a manufacturer at a public hearing before a legislative committee, paupers imported from England expressly to be employed in manufacturing, because of the cheapness of their labor. Our large cities and manufacturing centres are surcharged with younglings growing up in ignorance and to a heritage of crime, notwithstanding all our appliances of education. And one strong reason among many others, is that there is no enforcement of

the school laws. We boast of these laws and of our system of education and of its results, but the ratio of ignorance is increasing beyond the proportion of its means of cure, so that we are driven to the conclusion that the State, for its own sake, for its reputation's sake, a reputation that cannot much longer be maintained by self-laudation, for the sake of its whole people, must adopt, and put into systematic and rigid enforcement, measures absolutely positive, for the education of the very large number of its untaught children. The Commonwealth must institute forceful means to secure to each of its children, adopted and native, every one of them, a participation in the benefits of her method of education. Let us urge this point a little.

Here are certain words of no ordinary signification,—Commonwealth, children, education ; forces, in their connection here, conveying the idea of an intimate mutual relation between certain parties, and a strong right of one of them over the other, a right founded on the happiness and usefulness of one and the permanent safety of the other. But there is yet something more that may be legitimately made out of them. Under existing laws, every child has secured to him the right of a free education in the public schools. The parent can demand it for his child and it cannot be withheld. Now, is it hard to insist upon the converse, that the State which provides the education shall have an equal right to insist upon it that every child shall be educated, and that our compulsory law, for such we have, though it lies dead on our statute books, shall be brought to bear, with impartial and efficient rigor, upon every employer and parent who, through avarice, wilfulness or neglect, prevents the education of the children ? The very existence of a republic, the very perpetuity of the common good, of the common weal, the commonwealth, the security of common and individual rights, happiness, liberty, property, are inextricably involved in the education of *all* the people, and endangered by the push of ignorance,—ignorance, that word so comprehensively and fearfully expressive of the multitudinous causes of misery in society and to society,—ignorance that blocks up the way of conserving law, dwarfs the general amount of happiness and impedes the progress of mankind. Now, we maintain that society, by the natural law of its organization, has a

legitimate and indisputable right to step right into the road and to clear away this obstruction, regardless of who may chafe or who may fret or who may oppose; that it has a manifest right to assault and to subdue ignorance wherever it may be found, and that it is the bounden duty of every good citizen, not only to bid it God-speed in the righteous struggle, but furthermore, to hasten to its aid, to go into the fight, and to put in with forceful vigor, and rapid repetition, any number of well-aimed and stunning blows at the common and mischievous enemy of the common good.

The State must, we say, for its own preservation, adopt and enforce more certain means of educating this class of its children. It must *enforce*, it *must compel*, and all three, and each several one, child, parent and employer of every variety, *must be constrained* to yield to law, yea, verily, forced to yield, if nothing short of force and compulsion will suffice. It is useless any longer to wink at existing educational abuses, or to blink the idea of compulsion out of sight and out of thought. A fearful warning comes from France, whose ignorant hordes have been scattered before the educated soldiers of Prussia, like chaff before a whirlwind. And Prussia *compels* the education of every child within her borders.* Nobody who thinks and forecasts, can object or refuse to stand by the State when it comes in with its rightful powers of self-preservation, and insists upon it that *every* child within its limits *shall be educated*. It may possibly be a delicate operation to step in between an obstinate father who prevents the education of his child and take the child from under his false and incompetent protection. But if the State does not do this indelicate thing when the child is a child, it may have to do the much more indelicate thing of hanging him when he shall have become a man. It will therefore be vastly better for the State to protect itself from harm by the preventive processes of the schools, than to be compelled to do it by the curative method of the gallows.

* Jules Simon has declared that "the people that has the best schools will be the first of peoples; if it be not to-day it will be to-morrow." Look at his own France. In 1866, of its population of 33 millions, 28 per cent. of the men and 48 per cent. of the women could not read, while 40 per cent. of the men and 60 per cent. of the women could not write even their own names. In one department, these per centages were respectively 58 and 76! And yet Napoleon III. said years ago, that "in a country of universal suffrage every citizen should know how to read."

Now we know indeed that there is a compulsory statute of the Commonwealth in relation to the schooling of its children, but like a great many other statutes on the books, it is paralytic, effete, dead—killed by sheer neglect. It was never enforced, and never supposed to be anybody's duty to enforce it. In fact we are inclined to believe that it is not generally known that such a law was ever enacted. *Nobody looks after it, neither town authorities, nor school committees, nor local police, and the large cities and many of the towns of the State are swarming with unschooled children, vagabondizing about the streets and growing up in ignorance and to a heritage of sin. The mills all over the State, the shops in city and town, are full of children deprived of their right to such education as will fit them for the possibilities of their after-life. Nobody thinks of either enforcement or obedience in the matter, so that between those who are ignorant of the provision, and those that "care for none of these things," thousands of the poor younglings of the State, with all her educational boasting, stand precious small chance of getting even the baldest elements of education.*

And this brings up thought of the successful experiment in England of her system of

"Half-time Schools,"

as now established and in full success in many of her manufacturing towns. Some account of them will be found interesting, and may prove suggestive of their value if sanctioned by law in Massachusetts. They are founded on the principle that children employed in factories must be allowed some portion of each day for educational purposes, and that their employment for a full day's work of ten hours within the walls of a mill is in excess of their physical ability, and would therefore redound to the injury of both mind and body. To remedy the evil they are allowed on each day three hours of schooling, and every factory child in the kingdom *works only half a day and attends school the other half*, and it has been abundantly proved that these "half-timers" eventually obtained as much book instruction as the children in the same schools, under the same masters and by the same methods, obtained under the full time of five and six hours.)

Before proceeding, however, to speak in further detail of this

excellent arrangement, we desire to speak of a school of a similar character established in Massachusetts, the first one of its kind in the State; the factory school at Fall River, though prior in existence, being on the time-method of an alternation of three months' schooling and nine months' work.

The "half-time school" at the "Indian Orchard" Mills, in an outlying ward of Springfield, about four miles from the city hall, owes its origin to Edward Atkinson, Esq., treasurer of said mills. It is one of the public schools of the city, and under supervision of its school committee, but is especially set apart for the children of the factory between ten and fifteen years of age. Its practical working may be learned from the following two letters, the first from Mr. Atkinson, in reply to a note from this department asking for detailed information, and the second from the resident agent of the mill to Mr. Atkinson, giving more minute details :

BOSTON, 1871.

Gen. H. K. OLIVER, *State House*.

DEAR SIR:—I send you the latest report about our half-time school. You will remember that this school is a public school, supported by the city of Springfield, and is not in any sense a charity school. It could be carried on better if our village were not isolated from the main part of the city and the number of children rather too small for the greatest economy. I think half-time schools might be established with great benefit in all our larger towns and cities, drawing children from various employments in which they are now occupied, or making it possible for other children to aid in their own support who cannot now do so, owing to the requirements of the full-time school.

From the observations I have made while the half-time school has been in operation at our mill, I should think that the system might be applied with great benefit to the cash-boys in our retail shops, to boys employed in printing offices, to boys who sell papers, and that very many girls would be much more usefully employed if occupied half the day in a clothing establishment or other trade, and the other half in a sensibly conducted school, rather than all day in school; especially if such a system made it necessary for both girls and boys to employ the three school hours per day of the half-time system in genuine study of geography, arithmetic, the English language and good reading, and in the practice of writing, rather than in a superficial study during five hours' full-time of

chemistry, what is called physiology, and other exercises of little or no practical use to the large majority of pupils after they leave the school.

I enclose herewith some pages from the copy-books of half-time pupils, showing their progress in less than one year after the school was established.*

Yours respectfully,

EDWD. ATKINSON.

INDIAN ORCHARD, 1871.

EDWARD ATKINSON, Esq., *Treasurer*.

DEAR SIR:—I herewith send you as per request detailed account of our “half-time” school from its commencement. The school first started December 14, 1868, with thirty scholars in attendance, and holding a session of three hours in the afternoon of each day, Saturdays excepted. The children worked in the mills in the forenoon, and left work for their dinner at 12 o'clock; attended school in the afternoon, commencing at 1 o'clock and closing at 4, and then returned to their work in the mills. At the beginning of the second term it was thought best to commence school at 1½ o'clock, thus giving the children *more* time for recreation. Those who worked by the day were allowed $\frac{3}{4}$ time (pay), but their average pay for the month would amount to *nearly* as much as when working *full* time and not attending school, from the fact that where they before were obliged to be “out” from sickness or other causes, we then found them at their work every day. And for the same reason those working by the “job” or piece would earn as much on the particular kind of work that children are required to do. This system of “half-time” was a marked success, and was kept up until the winter of 1875, with an average attendance of thirty scholars. Each one was obliged to attend one-half of each school-day for six months, making *three* months’ *full* time as required by law; they were then admitted to the mills for six months as *full*-time workers, while a new set took their places in the school-room. In December, 1870, it was decided to make a “full-time school,” in other words, to employ two sets of children, keeping one set at school half of each day, while the others were at work; those working in the forenoon taking breakfast at 5½ o'clock, commencing work at 6½ o'clock, and

* It was our intention to present lithograph copies of these specimens. It was found, however, that the preparation would delay the Report several weeks, and it must be done hereafter. The specimens are from the writing-books of six children, two of them Irish and four French Canadians, their ages varying from 10 to 14 years, and who had attended this school less than 11 months, being at first, all of them, unable to read or write. The writing is clean, clear, perfectly legible at the first glance, and highly creditable to the children, the teacher, and this special school system.

leaving off at 12 o'clock; their session of school opening at 1½ and closing at 4½, then having the rest of the afternoon to themselves, their places in the mills being filled by those who attended in the forenoon. These "forenoon" scholars take their meal at the same hours as the others, their school beginning at 9 o'clock and closing at 12; these then go to work at 12¾ o'clock and finish at 6.35. We pay each set for "half-time." This school was started the first week in December, 1870, with [forty-three scholars in attendance, twenty in forenoon and twenty-three in the afternoon. Owing to the removal of several families from the place the average attendance did not exceed 30 for the term (which closed March 24). When we commenced this system I thought it the better of the two, but it does not work as well, from the fact that it reduces the wages of the children to too low a figure. When the school begins again we shall return to the system as first established by you.

Now as to the results of a "half-time school." We reach by it a class of children that must grow up in ignorance but for this opportunity. Their parents would be glad to send them to school if they could afford to do so (at least they say so). The effect upon these children is marvellous; they acquire habits of neatness, their morals improve, in fact their whole being seems changed by their "contact with the school-room." It is astonishing to see how readily they learn, and how much of reading, writing and arithmetic they acquire in one short term. Much of this is due to the excellent teachers that have been provided. E. A. Hubbard, Esq., superintendent of schools, has done all in his power to make this school a success, as has Miss Sheldon, the principal, who has been ably seconded by Miss Lucy Richardson, the teacher of the school; and she has certainly accomplished wonders. They would without doubt have been glad to have added their testimony, but have not yet returned from vacation. I believe that as a rule the children learn as much in this "half-time" as children of same age in full-time school, but the teachers have not expressed an opinion on the subject.

Yours respectfully,

C. J. GOODWIN, *Agent.*

This system, in its general features, is of English origin. Its working may be understood by looking at the arrangement of time in some of the English mills. Their morning bells for waking the operatives ring at 5.30, work commences at 6, and continues till 8 o'clock. At that hour they go out to breakfast. Returning at 8.30 they work till one o'clock, P. M. They then

leave for dinner and, returning at 2, they work till 6 o'clock. This is the arrangement for five days of the week, giving $10\frac{1}{2}$ hours for each day. On Saturday, beginning at the same hour, and taking breakfast as on other days, they continue till 2 o'clock, P. M., when work stops for the day, and dinner is taken after the mill closes. This gives $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours for Saturday, which, added to the $52\frac{1}{2}$ hours of the other five days, makes the 60 hours of the week, or an average of 10 hours a day.

The factory children, however, are divided into two sets—which we will designate as No. 1 and No. 2—for convenience of explaining their school and work times, and we have,—

No. 1.—A. M. In school from 9 to 12 for 5 days of the week.

P. M. In mill from 2 to 6 for 5 days of the week.

No. 2.—A. M. In mill from 6 to 1, P. M. (less breakfast time), for 5 days of the week.

P. M. In school from 2 to 5 for 5 days of the week.

On Saturday neither set attends school, but No. 1 works in mill from 6 to 11, A. M. (less breakfast time), and No. 2 works in mill from 11 to 2, P. M.

Every month the two sets change times,—No. 1 taking mill in the forenoon and school in the afternoon, and No. 2 taking school in the forenoon and mill in the afternoon, so that No. 1 working 23 hours per week for one month works 37 hours per week the second month; while No. 2, working 37 hours per week for the first month, works 23 hours per week the second month, each set getting 15 hours' schooling per week and time for recreation besides, *while children in the mills of Massachusetts work 66 hours per week, and, as a general thing, get no schooling.*

This is the method in some parts of England, while in others, by the use of Saturday as a school day, forenoon and afternoon, 3 hours more schooling per week is secured to each set. [For further details, and the working and educational influence of these schools, see Appendix.]

A careful reading of Mr. Goodwin's letter will show that this school will differ from the English half-time schools, by returning to its first method, inasmuch as the children will work in

mill *all the forenoon* and a *part of the afternoon*, while the English half-timers *have an entire half day out of mill*.

The former children will work an average of more than 8 hours a day, while the latter work an average of only 5 hours, thus having some time for recreation from work and school, which is denied to their fellows here. While the agitation is going on upon the subject of *over-study* by children in our general school system, under six hours a day in school and two hours out, the influence of the combination of eight hours' work with three hours' study, in a practical continuity of time by factory children, is certainly worthy of like consideration. The English system is far better for the children, and we believe that their productive power will, in the long run, be fully as good, though that is not a pressing argument. At the Naumkeag Mills in Salem, this true half-time system is carried out, and two-thirds pay is allowed the children.

We now proceed to present the subject of hours of labor in factories, with testimony of employers and employed, &c.

HOURS OF FACTORY LABOR.

Testimony of an Operative in relation to Hours of Labor.

Q. Have you ever worked more hours a day than you now work?

A. I have never worked more than what is called 11 hours. There is always extra work, cleaning, oiling, &c., that must be done, and it takes time not reckoned into the 11 hours, so that you really work more than 11 hours. / I have worked what is called 10 hours a day, and the ten-hour system always has a good influence on the work-people. We don't lose $\frac{1}{11}$ of the pay, everybody knows that. I didn't lose a single cent, because I didn't get so much exhausted. / A man can work steadier on the ten-hour plan, and when his wife has to work with him to make out a living, she has one more hour to do her housework, cooking and cleaning and mending, and so she would not have to leave off a day or two* every month to do her matters at home. On the eleven-hour plan people have to leave their work to go down street to buy what they want, because there is no time otherways, and at night they are too tired. That extra hour a day would really give to the mill the time the help have to use each month for house purposes and buying of things. *Q.* But could you in the month turn off as much work in 10 hours as in 11?

* Two days, being 22 working hours, is very nearly an hour a day less on each 26 working days of the month.

A. Yes, sir; with the speed we should have, and the good feeling we should have, we could do it. Q. In the course of the day which was your worst hour? A. The 11th hour was the worst. We are worn out and we feel that we can't get off as much work. That hour is a good deal worse than the first hour. I feel fainty when I come out of mill at night, and I did not when I worked 10 hours. That last hour is dreadful bad. Q. What was the influence of the ten-hour system upon the moral, mental and physical condition and habits of the operatives? A. It was this: it caused many to learn to read and write. I have known men join together in their houses and learning. I was one of a number that began to educate themselves. When a man don't get home till after 7 o'clock in the evening, especially in winter time, he feels like going to bed, he is so worn out. Q. Do you believe that operatives would spend that hour to their advantage and benefit? A. Yes, sir; I know they would. I speak of them as a whole. Q. You think they would not spend it in idleness and dissipation? A. No, sir; they don't spend so what little leisure they get now.

By an Agent.

I think ten hours a day is as long a time as operatives should work in a mill. That number limits the day of work-people outside, and there can be no reason, other than the dollar-reason, why women and children, weaker than men, should work eleven. I don't think it possible for anybody to work as vigorously eleven hours as he will ten. Commencing in the morning, you work with renewed strength for three or four hours, and after that your energy begins to slacken, and it slackens till the bell rings out. Nor is it possible for a man to work as vigorously the last part of the day as he did the first part. The operatives vary in perfectness and productiveness as the day progresses; and if there should be a reduction to ten hours there would not be a loss of one-eleventh of the product. A man can work ten hours in the mill, and working with a will, and with the object of gaining one hour for himself, he will make a machine produce in ten hours as much as it will in eleven. He would be more attentive and try to make as much pay as in eleven hours. "I think it will be found that much of the cloth made during the eleventh hour is of poorer quality than the rest, and that the necessity of looking it over the next day and fixing it all right, lessens the product of that next day. If we were to suppose two sets of operatives in the same business, one working 11 hours and one working 10, a day, other things being equal, there is no doubt that the 10 hour set would hold out more years than the 11

hour set. I certainly believe that the productive capacity of a set of work-people may be lessened by increasing the hours of their daily work. The question is not legitimately one of arithmetic, nor can it be settled by argument about one-eleventh less or one-tenth more. It is a question to be settled by actual results on long-continued trial.

We run our mill 66 hours per week. When I began as a boy in a mill I worked 15 hours a day. I used to go in at a quarter past four in the morning and work till quarter to eight at night, having 30 minutes for breakfast and the same for dinner, drinking tea after ringing out at night. But I took breakfast and dinner in the mill, as the time was too short to go home, so that I was 16 hours in the mill. This I did for 11 years, from 1837 to 1848. The help was all American. I think we produce more goods now running 11 hours than we did then running 15. Improvements in machinery have had much to do with it. For instance, I remember when it was a good day's work for a man to press 50 pieces of goods, and he would have to work long and hard to do it. Now we can press the same quantity in 4 hours under better machinery. In 1848 we dropped to 14 hours. In 1850 or 1851 we went down to 12 hours. A human being is something like a machine. When you work at the top of your speed, the more you then crowd the less you produce, and when the body is worn down by fatigue, you may crowd work but you do not keep up the proportion of product.

Testimony of Isaac P. Chase, of Tecumseh Mills, Fall River.

Q. What was the cause of your returning from 10 hours to 11 hours of work a day? A. It was competition in business. When the operatives asked for 10 hours a day, our manufacturers had interviews with the manufacturers of Lowell, Lawrence, and of several places in Rhode Island. They expressed themselves willing to come into the arrangement. It was just at the close of the war, when profits were large, and the help asking for it, the owners readily granted it, because they could afford to do it, and yet keep their mills running. We desired to make ten hours the universal rule, and the Fall River manufacturers interviewed those of Lawrence, Lowell, Manchester, and other large manufacturing places. (This is as I understood matters, I do not give it of my own personal knowledge.) It was understood that all would join Fall River in this ten-hour movement, on the following first of January (1869). Our help was then promised that if they would return to their work (this was in November 1868, I think) and

would run the work till January, the ten-hour system would be granted. When January came, business had become dull, the prices of goods had fallen off very rapidly, and manufacturing had become a mere living business. But we kept our word, and ran our mills ten hours a day. No other mills to my knowledge came into the movement. *Q.* Did not the Atlantic Cotton Mills at Lawrence join? *A.* Not to my personal knowledge. We ran in this way 21 months, when business became so poor that we could not continue and save ourselves. There was a perfect prostration of business. Other mills ran 11 hours, $11\frac{1}{2}$, 12, and some even $12\frac{1}{2}$ hours. Some of these were in Rhode Island, and some in Massachusetts, and they had just that advantage over us. It was a 10 per cent. advantage and that 10 per cent. was a profit, or a saving, and therefore they were not going behind. We thereupon stated to our help that we must go back to 11 hours, but at any future time, when any of the manufacturing towns in Massachusetts, or in New England, would adopt the ten-hour system, we would ourselves return to it. *We not only promised them, but we said that we would assist them in obtaining ten hours established as a day's labor, and I think that from that day to this, nothing has even been heard from the Fall River capitalists in opposition to the ten-hour law.* *Q.* Did they favor the law attempted at the session of the legislature in 1870? *A.* I think so. I think Mr. Chase, the treasurer of our Union Mill, gave it his support, I think he voted for it. He was a senator one year when it came up, and I think he used his influence in its behalf, and voted for it. *Q.* When you went upon the ten hours, did you increase your speed. *A.* No sir, we did not. We think that our machinery is driven as fast as it can be profitably driven whether we run ten or eleven hours. *Q.* Were any dividends declared during the 21 months of your ten-hour run? *A.* I think there were, but they might have come from previous earnings, or might have been on earnings then made. Our mill was in operation only a small portion of the time. *Q.* Did your own mill declare any dividends during the ten-hour running? *A.* No, sir; it is not customary for mills to make dividends during their first, or even their second year's run. *Q.* As a rule, then, you think the Fall River manufacturers were satisfied with the ten-hour system? *A.* I never heard any objection to it. *Q.* The objection existing then, was the impossibility of competing with mills in your vicinity which were running a greater number of hours, which greater number was equivalent to a gain over you of ten per cent.? *A.* Yes, sir; and under that competition and gain, we could not

live. *Q.* Is there any way of obtaining a comparative statement of the product and earnings of your various mills under the 10 and 11 hours system? *A.* It might be had from the reports, but I do not think it would be a fair* statement, or a statement that you would be satisfied with, because the operations of the ten-hour system under the influence of the war, and the earnings thereunder, might have been large, and the dividends large, while at the close of the 21 months' run of ten hours, the earnings and dividends would be small. A year afterwards, there was a falling off in the price of cotton, to a very large extent, and no falling off in the price of goods to such extent, and as a large profit was realized, the figures would not represent the facts [comparatively]. During the two years following the war, cotton was very high and kept high. When we started our mill, we paid 38 cents a pound for our cotton. In six months afterwards we bought it for 15 cents. After that season, it rose to 32 and 33 cents, and it has continued fluctuating, until now (August, 1870) it stands at 22 to 23 cents, while the price of our products has not had a corresponding fluctuation. At one time a single bale of cotton sold at Providence for \$2 a pound, and I have known of \$1.96 being paid per pound by mill owners of Fall River. The Granite Mill was built during the last year of the war, I think in 1865, and the mill was filled up with cotton at \$1.86 a pound, and within six months, or thereabouts, it fell from \$1.80 to 60 cents. The mill had then on hand 50 to 60,000 pounds which depreciated in that proportion. I cannot give you our comparative product for 11 and 10 hours, because the starting of a new mill like ours, would be no criterion. I think, however, that 11 hours would have about one-tenth in gain over 10 hours. *Q.* Was the adoption of 10 hours the result of an agreement after conference among the employers at Fall River? *A.* It was; but not acting then as treasurer, I cannot tell the controlling reasons.

In connection with the arguments for a reduction of factory time to 10 hours, we give the following facts gathered at Lowell, showing the increased production under improved machinery. It is certainly very encouraging to the hope and expectation of further improvement. In fact, in the dressing department, a new machine called a slasher, is doing the work of four of the usual machines.

* For this reason we did not call for figures from Fall River on this matter.

FACTS BEARING ON THE TEN-HOURS ARGUMENT.

*Cotton Department.**Picking and Carding.*

In these departments, with the machinery now in use, a man can produce double the amount that he could 25 years ago, with the machinery then in use.

Spinning.

In this department, a man can produce, on the same number of spindles, twice the number of pounds of yarn that he could 25 years ago.

Dressing.

A girl, 25 years ago could dress 960 yards per day. A man now with a slasher will dress 10,800 yards per day. (This is put by others as high as 13,000 yards running 10 hours per day.)

Weaving.

A girl can now weave three times the number of yards of cloth that she could 25 years ago.

Woollen Department.

We are informed that in this department of manufactures, one hundred per cent. of goods can now be produced as easily as sixty-six per cent. 18 years ago.

This increased power of production in all the departments, both cotton and woollen, is due largely to improvements in machinery, and somewhat to an increase of speed.

Stockholder vs. Operative.

The stocks of the various corporations are held by men who are not dependent upon them for a livelihood, most of them having money or business which affords them a competence independently of these investments. Almost all the operatives are dependent on their daily labor for their daily bread. It is, therefore, impossible for them to contract with the corporations in any just sense of the term. If they refuse, as a body, to comply with the rules of the corporations in reference to their number of working hours, or to labor unless they can receive a higher rate of wages than that offered by the corporations,

the result is, work stops—which means starvation to the operatives, and a loss to the stockholders of nothing except their income on these investments. Hence, the corporations have the advantage, since men can live longer without interest-money than without bread.

To the subjoined questions sent to medical men in four principal factory towns, we received but two replies, one gentleman requesting their withdrawal for fear lest his replying should affect his practice and another saying he “had no time for the subject.”

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

OFFICE OF BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR, }
STATE HOUSE, BOSTON, January, 1871. }

DEAR SIR,—Please give us, on the points enumerated below, the results of your observation and experience as a professional man, in connection with factory labor, especially as regards their bearing upon women and children so employed :—

1. Accidents and casualties.
2. Unnatural or monotonous working positions.
3. Exhaustion from overwork.
4. Work by artificial light.
5. The inhalation of foreign particles.
6. Haste or irregularity at meals.
7. Predisposition to fever.
8. Predisposition to contagious disease.
9. Predisposition to pelvic disease.
10. Predisposition to sexual abuse.
11. Predisposition to depression of spirits.
12. Predisposition to intemperance.
13. Progressive physical deterioration in connection with family labor.
14. Premature old age.
15. Growth and development of children.
16. Boarding-house life.
17. Exposure to extremes of temperature.

Please send reply as early as your convenience will permit.

Respectfully yours,

HENRY K. OLIVER. *Chief.*

We append the following reply :—

Gentlemen of the Bureau,—Your letter is received, and I hasten to reply. I shall probably not be able to give you quite as full answers, nor what I should really desire, to all the questions pro-

pounded, in consequence of my having the position of city physician, in connection with my private practice. I will, however, do the best I can under the circumstances.

1. Accidents and casualties are very numerous, partly owing to the exposed machinery and partly owing to carelessness. A good many also, may be attributed to the extreme lassitude produced by confinement to work. It is really painful to go round among the operatives and find the hands and fingers mutilated, in consequence of accidents.

2. Unnatural or monotonous working positions. The positions assumed by the operatives are numerous, in some cases making them round-shouldered, in other cases producing curvature of the spine and bow-legs.

3. Exhaustion from overwork. In consequence of the long hours of labor, the great speed the machinery is run at, the large number of looms the weavers tend, and the general overtaking, so much exhaustion is produced in most cases, that immediately after taking supper, the tired operatives drop to sleep in their chairs. I have often seen the boys and girls lie down in a corner of the room, on the floor and go to sleep. Then they are called up early in the morning to go through the same routine.

4. Work by artificial light. It is very injurious to the eyes, as may easily be seen by the large amount of affections of the eyes, especially in the winter months, when they have to light up. The affections consist principally in conjunctiviti, opacity of cornea, granulations of the lids, &c.

5. The inhalation of foreign particles. The greatest injury from this source is realized in the carding room. The weavers suffer most from sucking the threads through the shuttles, particles of cotton getting into their mouths, which they keep chewing and often swallow. I have been called to cases when I suspected this to be the cause of trouble in the stomach. After giving an emetic, they have in some cases vomited little balls of cotton.

6. Exposure to extremes of temperature. This, no doubt, is very injurious; the mills, always warm, sometimes get very much overheated. The operatives too, are very careless and run out from a hot mill into the open air, without being properly clad. Some of them have no choice in the matter, not being able to procure proper clothing. Then after working 11 hours in the hot atmosphere of the mill they have to sleep in cold attics.

7. Haste or irregularity at their meals. They have to run to their meals and eat as fast as they can. It is a well-known fact, especially among medical men, that fast eating is the greatest cause

of dyspepsia. The stomach, an organ so essential to good health, becomes enfeebled and the foundation is laid for a broken-down constitution. I cannot use language strong enough in condemnation of a practice so injurious. With regard to irregularity, they have to take their breakfast about 6 o'clock in the morning, dinner at 12 o'clock, supper at 7 in the evening ; too long between meals for any body if they expect to enjoy good health.

8. Predisposition to fever. Some of the facts already enumerated, are sure predisposing causes to fever. The blood being kept thin by warm rooms, the sensitive skin is fully prepared for the shock produced by the change of atmosphere. Fevers are therefore more prevalent among this class than among any other, and the mortality very much greater, they not being able to withstand them.

9. Predisposition to contagious diseases. They take any contagious disease very quickly, in consequence of the causes already enumerated in the answer on fevers. Then, again, they are much crowded together, and have to breathe impure air. But I shall speak of that more fully in answer to the 17th question.

10. Predisposition to pelvic disease. There appears, as far as my observation goes, quite a predisposition to pelvic disease among the female factory operatives, producing difficulty in parturition. The necessity for instrumental delivery has very much increased within a few years, owing to the females working in the mills while they are pregnant and in consequence of deformed pelvis. Other uterine diseases are produced, and, in other cases, aggravated in consequence of the same. For instance, those painful diseases, dysmenorrhœa, menorrhagia, &c.

11. Predisposition to sexual abuse. There is no doubt that this is very much increased, the passions being excited by contact and loose conversation ; there cannot fail to be among so many brought together many evil disposed and immoral persons. They are, also, as a general thing, ignorant,—at least to that extent that they do not know how to control their passions, nor to realize the consequences. Yet it is my opinion, that sexual abuse is not carried on to that extent among factory operatives, that it is among the opulent, who have nothing to do, and among persons of long continued sedentary habits.

12. Predisposition to depression of spirits. Experience demonstrates to a certainty, that the factory life predisposes very much to depression of spirits. Hence you see the careworn, haggard look, the dull expression of the eye, the anxious, troubled countenance, &c. Hypochondria and hysteria are quite common amongst the females.

13. Predisposition to intemperance. That all the surroundings of a factory life predispose to intemperance, cannot be doubted. The exhaustion produced by long hours, &c., causes them to look for stimulus, and there is none they so naturally fly to, as to beer or strong spirits. As a consequence, when they get one glass they want more, and some of them will have a carouse, all the circumstances tending in that direction; and, although I am a temperate man myself, in the strict sense of the word, I have a great deal of charity for those that are not.

14. Progressive physical deterioration produced by family labor in factories. It is well known that like begets like, and if the parents are feeble in constitution, the children must also inevitably be feeble. Hence, among that class of people, you find many puny, sickly, partly developed children; every generation growing more and more so.

15. Connection between continuous factory labor and premature old age. It is a fact, patent to every one, that premature old age is fully developed, in consequence of long hours of labor and close confinement. Very few live to be old that work in a factory.

16. Factory labor, as affecting the growth and development of children employed. That factory life, as it is now conducted, saps the very foundations of life, is a fact undeniable; decay manifesting itself in consumption and kindred diseases. In fact, as I have already observed, a factory child will not develop into a robust adult, neither is it possible for them to become such.

17. Boarding-house life—its relation to health of inmates and provision for their sickness. With regard to boarding-house life, we are not in such a bad condition here, as they are in such a place as Lowell, where they have corporation boarding-houses; still we have our evils. With regard to provision on the part of the operative, for sickness, there is none, they having about as much as they can do to live while they are able to work. When sickness comes, they have either to assume debts they will never be able to pay, or call upon the city or State to take care of them. Our city is very generous in that direction, although, I am sorry to say, we have no proper place to receive them, not having a hospital. I have urged upon our government the necessity for one, but so far, without success. On this point, we are much to blame; Lowell is far before us in this respect.

18. With regard to the sanitary bearings of the present system of the hours of labor, they have been, I think, fully answered already. I pray God that the time may soon come, when the capitalists will practise that good old doctrine of doing unto others as

they would that others should do unto them, and of putting themselves in the place of their work-people, to see how it operates. Business pressure prevents my writing more.

Your obedient servant,

JOHN B. WHITAKER, M. D.

FALL RIVER, MASS.

Hours of Labor in Europe.

We here insert what we believe has never before been made public in this country,—some statistics upon the hours of labor on the Continent of Europe, with incidental remarks upon the employment of children. They are mainly derived from the “Reports of English Diplomatic and Consular Agents, upon the Condition of the Industrial Classes abroad,” (London, 1870), presented to Parliament by command of the Queen.

We ask special attention to the statements with regard to child-labor in Prussia and the North German Confederation. It appears that *children under 12 years of age* cannot be employed at all in Prussia, and those between 12 and 16, only 10 hours a day, and that time is diminished by an hour for dinner, and *a half hour forenoon and afternoon for rest or play in the open air*, reducing the 10 to 8 hours.

In the Confederation, children under 12 years cannot be employed in factories at all, and those between 12 and 14 only 6 hours; and then only on condition that three hours of the day are spent in receiving instruction in a school approved by the administrative authorities—that is, 6 hours work and 3 hours school each day. Above 14 years till 16, they can only be employed 10 hours a day, these subject to a reduction to 6, for educational purposes. A regular, definite and rigid system of inspection for the enforcement of the legal provisions relating to factory children is instituted, to prevent the law becoming like the Massachusetts law,

“Light as a puff of empty air.”

The Netherlands.

The hours of labor in the summer are generally twelve, including intervals for two or three meals. These consist of breakfast, at about 8, dinner about midday, and occasionally tea towards evening. Half an hour is considered enough for the first and last, but dinner is a more important matter, and occupies, with its subsequent repose and pipe, an hour or an hour and a half.

While other countries have been bringing the authority of the law to bear on artisans or their employers, with the object of restraining or protecting them, Holland seems to have gone on the principle of letting well (or bad) alone. Thus, no law would seem to have been found necessary to protect the young from the cupidity of their parents, by prohibiting their working in the factories under a certain age; no act of the legislature has been called for to limit the hours of labor, either in the cotton mill, or at the dress-maker's; the young are left free to do as they like, or as their parents tell them, and carry out the principle ever uppermost in this country, namely, that each individual is free to do with himself and with his own what he pleases, regardless of the common weal or woe, provided only that he do not transgress the code which is equally binding on all. It is not the custom here for a boy wishing to learn a trade, to be bound over to a master by indentures, or to enter into any arrangement answering thereto.

Prussia.

With respect to the employment of female labor in manufactories, owing to the rapid increase of population and the great development of industry, women are employed now to a much larger extent than formerly, in factories. More than a fifth of the whole number of factory operatives are females, and considering that the greater portion of them are members of families, and that they receive comparatively good wages, they are decidedly well off in an economical point of view. Their moral condition, owing to the male and female operatives working indiscriminately together at the mills, is, from all accounts, much less favorable. The reports from the various provinces describe them as inordinately fond of pleasure, and given to dissipation, adding that large numbers of them lead a dissolute life, and have to bring up illegitimate children. Many of the mill-owners take particular care to keep the work-rooms of the sexes separate; but in some branches of manufacture, this precautionary measure is impossible. The proprietors of the smaller class of manufactories show little inclination to incur expense by introducing the changes in the working of their establishments, which the adoption of such a measure would render necessary.

The regular employment of children under 12 years of age, in factories, mines, iron-works, or stamping mills, is forbidden by the Industrial Law of the 6th April, 1869. Youths under 16 are not permitted to work in any of the establishments named above, for more than ten hours a day, and they must be allowed half an hour's

interval of rest both in the morning and in the afternoon, and a full hour at noon, with liberty for exercise in the open air at each time. In addition to this, the law provides that due attention shall be paid to their health and schooling, and obliges factory owners to furnish, periodically, exact lists of all the juvenile operatives in their employment.

Workingwomen in towns, including all those not employed in coarse manual labor, such as sempstresses, milliners, embroiderers, and the like, are divided into two classes differing from each other very much, both as regards their material and social condition. Those who, from not being able to obtain private employment, are obliged to work for the large shops, clothing establishments, fringe makers, etc., are miserably paid, owing to the demand for this species of employment being so much in excess of what is required to meet the wants of the public, in spite of the constant changes in the fashions. The bulk of workwomen of this class, unless they are very clever at work, and have some means of their own wherewith to buy a sewing machine, take to prostitution. Workwomen of the other class, on the other hand, who succeed in getting a good private connection, go out to work in private houses, or work at home, and are able to earn a comfortable subsistence and to save money. As a general rule, their moral conduct contrasts favorably with that of their less fortunate fellow-workwomen.

Industrial Code, North German Confederation, June 21, 1869.

The right to carry on an independent trade or industry is irrespective of sex.

Children under 12 years of age are not to be taken into regular employment in factories.

Children under 14 years of age can only be employed in factories on condition of their receiving three hours' instruction daily, in a school approved by the superior administrative authorities. They must not be employed for more than six hours a day.

Youths above 14 years of age, until they have completed their 16th year, are not to work in factories for more than ten hours a day. Even these hours may be reduced by the central authority to six, if the young operatives are still bound to attend school according to the system of education in force in different parts of the Confederation.

The local police authorities are empowered to allow these hours of labor to be prolonged by one hour as maximum, and during four weeks at the utmost, if the regular business of the factory has been

interrupted, or an increase of work has been rendered necessary by some casualty or accident of a serious nature.

Young operatives are to be allowed half an hour's interval of rest both in the morning and in the afternoon, and a full hour at noon, with liberty of exercise in the open air at each time.

The hours of labor are not to commence before 5.30 A. M., and not to continue beyond 8.30 P. M.

Juvenile operatives are not to work on Sundays and holidays, or during the hours set apart by their spiritual pastors for instruction in the catechism, or for confirmation.

Any person engaging a juvenile operative for regular employment in a factory, must give previous notice to that effect to the local police authorities. The employer must draw up a list of the juvenile operatives in his employ, giving their names, ages, residence, the names of their parents, and the time of their entry into the factory, or discharge from it, to be hung up in the work-room, and a copy of it shown to the police and school authorities whenever they ask to see it. He must report every six months to the local authorities the number of such operatives in his employ.

No juvenile operative can be received into regular employment, until the father or guardian of the operative has presented the employer with a work-book. This work-book, prefaced by certain sections of the law, is to be issued by the local police authorities, at the request of the father or guardian of the juvenile operative, and must contain,—

1. The name of the operative, and the day and year of his birth.
2. The name, condition, and address of the father or guardian.
3. A certificate of the operative having previously attended school.
4. A column for his present school obligations.
5. A column for registering his admittance into the factory.
6. A column for registering the time of his leaving it.
7. A column for the inspector's minutes.

This book is to be kept in the custody of the employer, to be shown by him at any time, to the authorities, if they ask for it, and to be returned to the father or guardian, when the operative ceases to be employed.

Special officers, who are charged with the duty of seeing that the regulations are carried out, are invested with all the official authority of the local police authorities, including the right of inspecting the factories at any time. The proprietors of industrial establishments are bound at any time, even at night, when work is going

on, to allow them to be officially inspected, in accordance with the prescriptions.

The central authority is authorized to issue exceptional directions for a fixed period, not exceeding one year at the utmost, in respect to such industrial establishments as would be deprived of their necessary working power by carrying out the regulations laid down. In case of juvenile operatives already in employment when the present law comes into operation, the notice enjoined must be given to the local police authorities within four weeks.

Sweden.

No workman can be taken under 12 years of age.

Those under 18 may not be held to work during the night, between the hours of 9 P. M., and 5 A. M.

The day's work is considered to cover thirteen hours, from 6 A. M. to 8 P. M., or from 5 A. M. to 7 P. M., these latter in the case of smiths, and rough workers in metal, one hour being allowed in the middle of the day for dinner.

Mining.—Women and children, who never work below ground, are employed in roasting and fining the ore.

Ship building yard.—The time of labor per diem, is in winter 7 hours, in summer 11.

Steam flour-mill.—Time of labor is fourteen hours.

Lucifer match factory.—Time of labor, thirteen hours.

No child shall be engaged as assistant to a dealer, or for work in any manufacture, handicraft, or other industrial pursuit until after the full age of twelve years.

In factories and workshops, no one under the age of 18 years, shall be employed during the night between the hours of 9 o'clock in the evening and 5 o'clock in the morning.

Saxonia.

As a general rule twelve to thirteen hours constitute the working day of the laborer, including pauses for meals, whilst in those establishments where the workman do not get board and lodging from his employer (getting more and more in vogue), twelve hours is the usual time. In Chemnitz, 65 hours are taken as the normal amount of weekly work.

It appears, taking the whole year into account that 3,104 hours at the rate of 10 hours a day may be looked upon as the working capacity of the German, against 3,040 hours of the Englishman. The latter does not take his meals like the German, but works continuously and quietly from 7 to 12, and from 1 to 6. The Saxon

workman, on the other hand, takes half an hour for his breakfast, and although there may be no time fixed for dinner, he is generally allowed to eat his loaf during his work. It follows, therefore, that the German workman, although he works a longer time in point of hours, does not produce more than the Englishman.

Wurtemberg.

The society for promotion of the welfare of the working classes has established in Stuttgart a refuge for female factory operatives, which has proved most successful. The institution is occupied at present by eighty girls, under the superintendence of a matron. Each occupant pays 8*d.* a week for her lodging and the use of a bed, clothes chest, table, chair, &c., with light and firing. They are compelled to adhere strictly to the regulations of the establishment and be at home by a certain hour. The number of factory girls at Stuttgart (not resident with their families) is about 1,000 out of a population of 70,000.

Children's labor is, owing to the obligation of attending school, only permitted with considerable limitations on the part of the authorities. The manufactories in which children are employed, are for the most part spinning and weaving establishments, manufactories of straw hats, tobacco and combustibles. The produce of children's labor does not, however, play such an unimportant part in the native industry when it is considered how many thousand children are employed in industrial schools as well as at their homes in knitting, lace-making, embroidery, &c., for manufactories. The most recent statistics available give about 1,400 male and nearly 3,000 female children under 14 years of age as employed in factories *a few hours a day*.

Turkey.

The working hours at *Angora* are nine hours a day in summer, eight hours a day for two months, and seven for four months in winter (average 8 hours).

District of Brussa.—A working day is reckoned from sunrise to sunset, with one or two short intervals for meals. In summer, the working day may be called of thirteen hours' duration. Though the hours of labor may seem long, it must be borne in mind the laborer in the East is not much inclined to overtask his proper strength, but on the contrary, and that his avocations are generally of a light and healthy nature. In the silk works, however, it must be admitted that a long summer day's work, in the heated and vitiated air of the factory, is not favorable to the healthful physical development

of young persons. And it is a matter for regret that the young females in these establishments contract habits of improvidence, dissipating in finery and extravagance the wages earned by the sacrifice, to a great extent at least, of health. Factory labor has great attractions for young females, and is much preferred by them to field-work or domestic service.

Grand Duchy of Baden.

The question of the social importance of the factory system in regard to its influence upon the female population, has received great attention of late years in this country. In many of the factories the young women are well taken care of. The well-conducted establishments are, in fact, schools of training and improvement for them, and both their morals and their health are often in much less danger than in their own houses.

The silk factory of Carl Mez, in Freiburg, has been pointed out as one especially deserving of notice. He employs about 1,000 work-people. He has adopted two methods in carrying on his business. The first is to seek out for work-women in their own homes; and secondly, to found an establishment where young women who apply to him for work in Freiburg may be lodged and boarded. His first method has led to the establishment of a number of branch factories in the neighborhood of Freiburg, in those districts where the demand for labor appeared to be greater than the supply, and where the most of the work-people would be within reach of their own homes.

The experience of this employer during thirty-five years is interesting in respect to the condition of the laboring classes in the country districts, and the influence which a well-conducted factory is calculated to exercise upon them.

He observes: "If factories are well-conducted in respect to morals, they are a source of benefit not only to the operatives and families, but also to the whole population. We have observed this in the villages. It is a mistake to suppose that the condition of the agricultural laborer is a very satisfactory one. On the contrary, there is much misery among them, especially moral misery. When mothers apply to us for work for strong, healthy girls, we often observe to them that such girls are more fit for labor in the fields, and for service with the peasants; but in reply, we too frequently receive from them an account of the hard and immoral life often associated with such service. We have ourselves perceived that girls have been obliged to submit to very severe peasant labor in the summer in order to eke out the most scanty subsistence for the winter.

The scene changes, when a well-managed factory comes into a village; the poor girls must then receive better treatment and better wages or they go into the factory. In the first instance the richer peasants are annoyed at the competition they have to sustain, but in a few years all the well-disposed are glad to have the factory on account of the benefit it extends to the houses of those who most need them, and in the end to the proprietors of the land. We have also lived to see that it is not large peasant farmers who enjoy the most credit with the accountant of the commune, but those families who send one or two girls into the factory, because the latter, owing to their regular earnings, are the most punctual in their payments. But the moral benefit of a well-ordered factory is still greater. It affects the whole village, and any one returning to it after twenty years will find, in many respects, a great change for the better.

Switzerland.

At Olton, in the canton of Soleure, where the company of the Great Central Railway give employment to 700 workmen, the rate of wages is higher in the company's works than in the factories situated in other cantons, while the hours of labor are limited to from ten and a half to eleven hours.

The laws of Switzerland oblige every Swiss to attend the primary schools for a certain number of years. Geneva forms the only exception to this rule.

The age at which children enter the primary schools and the duration of their stay there, varies somewhat in the different cantons. Generally speaking, the laws oblige them to commence their attendance at the age of six or seven, and they are bound not to leave the primary school until they are fifteen or sixteen.

The religious festivals, more numerous in the Roman Catholic than in the Protestant church, although the number in both persuasions is excessive and has given rise to serious complaints, the drilling and field days which every Swiss must attend up to the age of 28, and in some cantons up to 34, are so many interruptions to operative labor.

Russia.

The hands work on an average of thirteen hours a day, commencing at 5 A.M. in the summer and at 5.30 A.M. in the winter and stopping work at 8 P.M. An hour in the middle of the day, generally from 12 to 1, is allowed for dinner, and the operatives usually have a short time allowed for breakfast at 8 A.M., and again

at 5 P.M. Adults and children keep the same hours; but only a very inconsiderable number of the latter are employed in mills.

Spain.

Valencia.—Masons.—The working hours depend on the season of the year, but are generally from sunrise to sunset, half an hour being allowed for breakfast, and two hours for dinner.

Carpenters and smiths, work from day-break until 8 o'clock P. M. between the 29th October, and 18th March, and from 7 A. M. to 7 P. M., between March and October.

Silk weavers.—Time of labor, from sunrise to sunset.

Shoemakers.—Hours of labor, eleven hours.

Saddlers.—Hours of labor, eleven hours.

Other trades not given.

France.

Summary of the law relating to the employment of children.—Children are not admitted to factories under 8 years of age. They only work 8 hours a day up to 12 years of age; 12 hours, from 12 to 16. They do not work at night, with certain exceptions when over 13 years of age. They do not work Sundays and holidays. They go to school up to 12 years of age, and afterwards, if they cannot show that they have received primary elementary instruction.

Hours of labor.—In large factories, the time for work is generally 12 hours; in rare instances 13 or 14. In Paris, only a few factories admit 11 hours. At Paris and Rouen, there are two meals a day. At Lyons, St. Quintin, Nancy, and Roubaix, there are three. During winter, when work begins later, the day's work is also shorter, although work is sometimes carried on in the evening up to 8 or 9 o'clock; meal-time is then reduced to half an hour. In summer and in winter, the hours for meals vary according to the convenience of the employer. At Paris, the most usual time is from 9 to 10 for breakfast, from 2 to 3 for dinner. In the country, the day's work begins at 5 in the morning, and ends at 7 in the evening, with two hours for meals; 12 hours.

Austria.

Employment of women.—The law enjoins, that in the employment of women, their inferior physical strength and more delicate organization are to be carefully considered. But I doubt if there be any country in Europe, where the number of women employed in strong physical labor is larger than in Austria. This, perhaps, is partly owing to military conscription taking off the men.

Working hours for minors.—The working day for persons under 14 years of age, is 10 hours, and for those whose age is between 13 and 16, 12 hours, with relaxation at intervals, for meals. The law prohibits the employment of persons under 16 years of age for night work of any kind, except in the case of those trades for which night work as well as day work is indispensable, in which case, minors are permitted to undertake night work, on certain conditions.

In this connection, we regret to say that replies to our inquiries upon subjects specified in paragraphs Nos. 2, 4 and 5, on page 4, were not received in time for this Report.

We now proceed to the subject of the homes of low-paid laboring men in Boston, in continuation of the same theme in our first report.

TENEMENT HOUSES, OR HOMES OF LOW-PAID LABORERS IN BOSTON.

We have again made a tour of inspection among the tenement houses of Boston, viewing some new localities, and reviewing some of those that we visited in December, 1869. The infamous, befouled, and disgraceful lairs in “Friend (!) Street Court” have most fortunately received their “baptism of fire” and been purified thereby. Nothing less purgative could have cleaned them out,—though it must have been a most offensive function even for fire. The ground has since been used for the erection of a stately pile of brick stores, erected by Mr. Cyrus Wakefield, the owner of the old iniquitous abominations, most happily made holocaust. There remain yet a plenty of them all about the city, quite as bad, the purification whereof would task the best energies of the same element.

Before entering upon an account of our recent visitations, we give, repeated from our last report, for those who may not be familiar with the law of tenement houses (chap. 281, 1868), a summary of what the statute requires for their regulation. It demands,—

1. A transom window over each door for ventilation.
2. Ventilation of each hall or entry.

3. Balusters to each stairway.
4. Suitable fire-escapes.
5. Water-closets or privies, connected with city sewage.
6. Cesspools, permitted only when unavoidable.
7. Cellars not to be occupied as sleeping places, except under permit.
8. Cleansing of garbage boxes.
9. Whitewashing twice a year.
10. Owner's or agent's name to be posted up on walls or doors.
11. Free access to board of health.
12. Vacating of buildings infected or out of repair.
13. Relates to dimensions of rooms, size of windows, water supply, garbage and waste boxes, etc.
14. Supervision by city board of health.

On page 182 of former report will be found a letter to the city Board of Health, relating to the premises we visited in 1869, and a reply thereto. In the latter occurs this passage:—

“We (the board), rely principally upon the police for information, *and such is very limited*, yet we live in hope that a united effort of the two departments during the year 1870, will accomplish more than has been done during the whole time since the passage of the Act. In the early spring (of 1870) steps will be taken to cause the owners of such buildings to conform to *certain requirements* * of the Building Act.

Respectfully submitted,

FEB. 25, 1870.

DANIEL B. CURTIS,
Assistant Superintendent.

How effectually these steps were taken, and what thoroughness of official action followed them, may be learned by a perusal of pp. 187–193 of that most instructive and valuable Report (Sen. Doc. No. 50, 1871) made by the Massachusetts State Board of Health for 1870. It will there be seen that these same beastly abominations, these pestilent stench-holes, reeking with frowzy fluids, and bestenching the atmosphere with their malarious effluvia, these fertile nurseries of disease and death, and skulking haunts of villainy and crime, are still permitted to remain in their unmitigated defilement, although after the exposure made by this Bureau in its report for 1870, the pub-

* See Report, Senate Doc. No. 120, 1870, p. 164, etc.

lic press confirmed all we then said, and added still more proof of the neglected shames. The authorities of Boston have made no efficient movement to check this scandalous violation of law, winking at the wrong, and letting the owners go “unwhipt of justice.” Yes, Boston permits it all,—Boston, the Athens of America; the home, as she is vaunted to be, of culture and refinement, of high art and pure morals, of missionary effort and Christian philanthropy,—Boston, that feeds the hungry, clothes the naked of foreign lands, and inaugurates fairs, with the receipts of which to soothe the horrors of war, (blessed work it all is!),—Boston, that builds palatial school-houses for her children, and hospitals for her sick;* that rears statues and memorial monuments to her deserving sons, and many she has,—Boston still indulges all this violation of sanitary statute, this squalor of filth, this physical debasement and depravity, these unscavenged nurseries of strumpets, thieves, jailbirds, cut purses, burglars and robbers! And who, we ask, are the owners of these courts of death to the body and ruin to the soul? Are they of the same class so racily catalogued by the pungent author of “Ginx’s Baby,” as “men who pay tribute to the Lord out of the pockets of the poor”? Are they men who buy fame and town names with rentals of 25 per cent. on their capital out of the hapless tenants of these foul-aired pest-holes, with their dingy ceilings, their dark and grimy windows, their murky and stenchy atmosphere, and their perilous thoroughfares? Does not everybody know that if one of the penniless starvelings found therein, were, in the desperation of hunger, to steal a baker’s false-weighted loaf, or under impulse of poverty, to filch a dollar from the counter of a bank, whose tricky cashier had robbed it of thousands, or, were he shivering with nakedness and cold, to pilfer a yard of cloth from a mill whose scot-free official had swindled it of millions,—does not everybody know that the sheriff, the court and the prison, would victimize him with pitiless speed and certainty?—while for a miserly landlord to slay his fleeced tenants, to poison the air they must breathe, to taint the neighborhood with the foul stench of deep stratas of filth, that breed dirt, flies, fleas, lice, and all the verminous curses that plagued Pharaoh, to grind the face of the poor on the roughest of grindstones, is as easy,

* A good proportion of them come from these very dens.

as safe, as unmolested, and unchastised as the frauds of the cheating baker, the irregularities* of the banking robber, or the swindling of the peculating official !

Now the barrack-system of tenement houses, wherein families are packed like figs in a drum (but without their sweetness), has an additional objection in the loss of all individuality and all that sense of home, its sheltering privacy and its attendant virtues. Home is no home without these. As the Hon. Mr. Thurlow in his work on "Trades Union Abroad" (London, 1870), well observes, "habits of cleanliness, neatness and sobriety, are not likely to be improved by hourly contamination from the unclean, the untidy, and the unsober. Among families thus packed together, there will not fail to be sickness, with unwonted frequency, drunkenness, licentiousness, moral turpitude of the darkest stain, with unyielding despair ; and if, by any strange chance, there should happen in the better elements of health, sobriety, modesty, and any cheerful bravery to struggle against the crushing ills of a life of ill-paid toil, these opposite elements encounter each other, day by day, in the yard, at the doors, and in the entries, and the result is, that the bad infect and putrefy the good, and you then have a whole colony deadened by despondency, and rushing into drunkenness and debauchery to rid itself of gloomy forebodings, thus risking the horrors of delirium and disease, to save itself from the horrors of despair.

A common pump and a common cesspool for a dozen families, are said to be enough to keep a sharp lawyer in steady practice. A little girl goes to fetch water, or throw away slops. A stout girl thrusts her aside. The mother of the little one flies to the rescue, and the mother of the big one rushes to the defence. The fathers of the combatants speed out to do battle for their loved ones, and directly, war sounding its dread alarm with furious heat, the friends of the several champions take sides in a mixed scrimmage, and free fight of fisticuffs,—water and slops all forgotten in the general hurly-burly and hulla baloo ! "Behold how great a fire a little matter kindleth !" Then steps in the constable, then the lawyer, then comes prosecutions for assault and battery, and then fines and jails as recompense for broken bones and cracked skulls.

* Anciently spoken of as *crimes*.

But these corporal ills are not so baneful, bad as they are, as are the fearful moral ills,—ills which being countless and defying description, must be left untold. There must also be produced a callousness to suffering and misery, a deadening of sympathies, growing more intense by daily familiarity with want, misery and suffering that can find no relief. The frequent visits of the doctor, the oft-occurring death, the almost daily funeral, specially of the young, are disheartening influences before the sight of those whose turn may not be far off.

Our first visit was made to Johnson's Block, in Meander Street, between Malden and Dedham Streets, the letting agent of which is Edward Follis, No. 8 Shawmut Avenue. The rents are collected every week in advance. Each tenement consists of two rooms, a living and a sleeping room, both dark, damp, dirty and unhealthful. A police officer told us that there seemed to be a death every week in the block, during the summer months. No trace of whitewash was found, nor any marks of compliance with the law. The stairways are rickety and dangerous, and water only to be had from a hydrant in one corner of the yard. There were five privies, the vaults being replete with excrement, and everything about them in a condition of indescribable nastiness. There are twenty-four tenements, one only being vacant.

Visited family of Mr. E. E——, a laborer in a stone yard, consisting of himself, wife and five children, occupying two rooms, one 15×10, with seven foot post, the other 8×6, with seven foot post. The father had been sick for some time with erysipelas. A child, three weeks old, was lying sick upon the floor with its head resting upon a wooden box; three other children were tending another, a sick child, a mere baby. Mrs. E—— said that she should go out washing, but could not leave the children, they were so small, and so she grubbed along with what little work she could get to be done at home. The furniture consisted of one old table, one rocking-chair, the bottom of which was a barrel-head, four rickety chairs, some wash-tubs in one corner of the living room and the usual scant furniture in the bedroom.

There were no proper conveniences anywhere of any sort. The personal appearance of the family gave the impression that

they tried to be clean. Mrs. E—— also said, that they lived most wretchedly from Christmas to March, and that it was “hard to keep along.”

The baker called while we were there, and said that the family subsisted principally on bread and crackers, the only family in the block indulging in that luxury, having a little meat on Sunday when the father was well and could work.

Next visited the room of Mr. N. W——, a peddler of apples, formerly a hod-carrier. He pays \$1.25 a week for rent; family consists of self, wife, and two children, these attending the Franklin School. Mother washing at home. Furniture consisting of one table, a few old chairs, some old dishes, an old bureau, and a couple of barrels. Some of these tenements command \$3 a week, and some \$2. One with a store in the basement rented for \$4 a week.

We then visited Ottawa Place, the same as described in our report of last year. It is not in so good condition as then. Dr. Saunders, the owner, has leased it to Jordan & Massey, who employ another party as agent to collect the rents and take the general charge. Expressing great dissatisfaction with the tenants, he said he had to charge exorbitant rents to meet the demands of the lease.

Our next examination was that of the Union Block, running from Emerald Street to Middlesex Street. The building is of wood, old, rickety, disjointed and tumble-down, the stairways full of holes, the plastering falling from the laths, and crevices in the walls letting in wind, rain and snow. It was hardly possible to find the number of families inhabiting the tenements, as on its being known that visitors were examining the premises, there was a rush of people to the entry-ways, with earnest inquiries whether the buildings was to be removed, and a declaration that if it were so, they would not pay any more rent. After a while we succeeded in getting entrance to one of the rooms, which we found to be in conformity with the general building. An old Irish woman occupied it, crouched over a smouldering fire of refuse wood and siftings of coal, from which a stifling smoke pervaded the room. The snow found easy entrance through the broken panes of the window. Found also in another room, dreary and comfortless, an aged American woman who, in better days, had owned real estate in the city.

The walls of her rooms were discolored with the recent rains and snow. The stairways were dark and dangerous, large icicles hanging on the balusters, and from the walls; ice also an inch thick covered the floors of the entries. In a room in the basement of this same house we found a family of three persons, husband, wife and child; wife had been sick three months in hospital, the child boarding out in the meanwhile. Everything betokened that "sharp misery had worn them to the bone."

This miserable, worn-out, dirty, dilapidated rookery, with its mouldy and dingy walls, in summer swarming with multitudinous vermin, in winter cold and cheerless as an iceberg, and at all seasons begrimed with filth, unfit for even hens or pigs; the chimneys moaning in the winds, with cracked and asthmatic voice, and wheezing out to the rotten roof the dolorous dirge of age and decay. The assessors' books give the owners as Brewer heirs. The tenants say that the owner is in Europe.

Stone's Yard.

Revisited this spot examined by us in December, 1869, and by the State Board of Health in 1870. The buildings remain, with their surroundings, in the same shameless condition, barring a little anointing of dabs of whitewash, insulting the eye with filth and the nose with stench, the privies having lost nothing of their nasty reputation.

Young's Court.

The same is true of the tenements in Young's Court; with their broken windows, rotten walls, and filthy privies, barring as before a little apologetic whitewashing, the expense of which, for his own room, was paid by one of the fleeced tenants.

So also the tenement houses in Institute Avenue, with their 70 occupants and seven empty rooms, and those in Stone's Alley are in about the same condition as described in our last report, and we venture to predict that neither these nor any other of the wretched dens that abound in Boston, will ever be made clean, wholesome and habitable, except under the forceful appliance of something more quickening than a law of mere words; something more energetic than a negligent board of health or timid and time-serving officials.

Kingston Court

Was subsequently visited. A wooden building containing 6 tenements, some having three rooms and some only one room to each tenement; dimensions of living rooms, $10 \times 14 \times 8$; sleeping rooms, 7×9 . Each living room has two windows. Sunlight can reach all the living rooms, but never penetrates the bedrooms; casings of the windows are badly shattered and broken, the walls in the two upper stories had not dried since a recent storm; chimney gradually tumbling down; one privy for 6 tenants, fearfully nasty; a filthy barrel half full of garbage; water obtained from a hydrant in the yard, upon which 26 *families depend*; formerly had two, one was removed last summer preventing several women taking in washing as they testified. The lease of this property is with the heirs of Thomas Thompson, the property itself belonging to the heirs of L. M. Sargeant. The agent is James Connors, No. 284 Washington Street, whose sub-agent, living near the premises, is P. Collins, grocer, No. 91 Essex Street.

Visited the family of a laborer who works by the day at \$1.50; occupies one room, with wife and two children; rent of room \$2.00 per week, payable every Saturday night; children's ages, 8 and 10 years; both attend school; dimensions of room, 10×14 with two windows badly broken, and protected by pieces of board to keep out wind and storm during the winter; paper nearly all been torn off or fallen from the walls, and in three different places the plastering overhead more than half off; door opening into the room from the entry without any kind of fastening, and kept closed by setting a broken chair against it; a sink in one corner of the room so rotten that the tenants are obliged to carry their waste water to the cess-pool in the yard, used by thirteen other families. Furniture consists of three broken chairs, two old tables, two large chests, and two bedsteads scantily furnished with bed clothing. A few dishes were in the closet and there was an old cooking stove; room partly papered with old newspapers; cross-beam supported by two stout sticks resting on floor.

Visited next Mr. D——, apple peddler, who, with wife and two children (girls, ages 16 and 18) occupies three rooms, a living room and two bed rooms; Mr. D. confined to his bed

nine weeks from an injury received by a fall upon the icy sidewalk ; the doctor says he can never recover. Girl of 18 years of age furnishes the family their only support by working in a large eating-house ; gets \$4.00 per week for her labor and uses it all to defray family expenses ; rent \$2.50 per week ; dimensions of living room 10×14, windows broken, walls smoky and dingy ; doors fastened with a string and nail ; furniture consists of a bureau, table, 4 chairs, and some dishes in the closet ; Mrs. D. had been sick with rheumatic fever, was obliged to take the youngest daughter, 16 years of age, out of school to take care of her father and herself.

Visited next Mr. —, laborer ; gets \$2.00 per day in summer ; has a wife and two children, oldest is about 15 years of age, youngest 12 ; latter at home (Wednesday P. M.) from school, reading a book from Public Library ; family occupies three rooms, living room and two bedrooms, rent \$2.50 ; dimensions of living room 10×14 with two windows ; bedrooms 8×10 with one window, casing of windows broken, and roof so dilapidated that they are obliged to set tubs to catch water when it storms ; paper very much defaced by smoke ; an utter impossibility to have a fire in any room in this building without filling the room with smoke. This family has lived in this house for ten years. Mrs. S. said there has never been one cent's worth of repairs put upon this building during all this time. The first five years of her living there the building was leased to a Mr. Connor, to whom they paid rent monthly, and who was considerate with tenants in cases of sickness or accident, if they had not the money for their rent ; that when house was transferred to Mr. Collins it was in tolerable good condition ; she had never failed to pay her rent regularly ; she had many promises of repairs, but no repairs, Mr. C. threatening, at each receipt of weekly rent, to put family and furniture into the street if next rent was not promptly paid.

Visited next Mrs. —, a widow ; gets living for self and 4 children, from 16 to 8 years old, by washing, when well. She was then sick with fever ; everything about the room dirty and forbidding. She said unless she got well and got work, she saw nothing but starvation before them ; the oldest daughter had had a good place at service, but was obliged to come home to

take care of her mother; furniture, two bedsteads, a broken chair, stove, trunk, two boxes, and a few dishes.

Next visited Mr. —, a seaman: served in the navy five years during the war; is now an invalid, unable to go up or down stairs without assistance; his wife supports herself and husband by washing, when able; has been sick two weeks, consequently unable to pay rent of \$2.50 per week, living-room and two bedrooms, one with windows, one without. The dark room they have rented to two young men, at \$1.50 per week; the young men were fine-looking and well-dressed; it seemed mysterious that they should take quarters in such an uninviting and entirely comfortless dark room, its only furniture an old bedstead, with a scant hay-stuffed mattress and ragged bed-cover, and 3 good-looking trunks belonging to the young men. Family apartment dirty and damp, walls black with smoke, roof so leaky that tubs are set to catch the rain. *Family were dining on oatmeal mixed with molasses and water*, upon which they were obliged to subsist, as their only income for two weeks prior to our visit was the rent, \$1.50, from the young men. In constant dread of being put into the street if rent were not procured by some means.

Next visited Mrs. —, a coat-finisher in a shop on Milk Street,—occupies one room, 12×9, at \$1.50 a week,—room shockingly out of repair, but kept perfectly neat and in order. She is the widow of a soldier killed in the war; has a daughter 10 years old; will remove as soon as wages justify; goes to shop at 7.30, A. M., returns to dinner, then to shop again, reaching home at 6 o'clock, P. M. Child prepares meals for mother, attends public school and Sunday school at Dr. Ellis's church; she was reading (Wednesday, P. M.) a book from the public library, with the door fastened for fear of the rough neighbors, and the rougher landlord, who frightened her by threats of turning out unless rent was paid by Saturday night.

Cove Place.

A building of brick 4 stories high, cornering on Furnace Street, lower part occupied as a wholesale liquor store; said by the tenements to belong to Daniel Simpson, but by the city assessors' books to S. A. Way, and leased by — Daly, 8 tenements

of 4 rooms each at \$4 per week, 4 tenements at \$2.75, and 4 at \$2.50, with two attics at \$1.50 and \$1,—total rents \$55.50 per week, and \$2,886 per year, besides the store.

Visited family of P—— C——, laborer out of work,—wife and daughter making flannel shirts at \$1.25 per dozen; the two can make a dozen a day with help of sewing machine.

Visited three-story wooden building, corner of East and Cove Streets,—9 tenement-rooms, long, low and narrow, tumble-down plaster and paper, broken windows, patched with old boards, stairs rickety and dangerous; floor of rooms partly broken through and would give way under slight pressure; everything filthy and rubbishy in rooms and cellar,—7 families; owned by ————. In one room the father, a laborer, lay dead drunk on the floor on liquor from the corner grocery; family, wife and two children; rent \$3 a week. Mother can earn \$4 a week when she can leave home and the man is sober.

Rear of Nos. 2 and 3 East Lenox Street.

Found an old wooden building in bad repair, situated upon low, damp ground; has 12 tenements; rooms recently white-washed; privies in the basement; vault floor in a dangerous condition; owned by S. Dimmick, junk dealer, Northampton Street. Visited the family of H——, soldier; wife and four children, one an infant a week old; child eight years of age getting breakfast of small bits of meat. Husband served in the army and returned uninjured. Since his return has lost his right arm on the horse-cars while standing upon the rear platform, after relinquishing his seat in the car to a lady; received some aid from the Grand Army of the Republic; works at odd jobs; is an American, wife English; rooms 14×12×8, two bed-rooms 6×5×8, one bed-room dark, walls in bad condition, water in entry. Occupation of the husband before the war, ornamental japaning.

Visited family of Q—— P——. Husband sick with long fever, family consists of wife and aged mother. Was in the oil-cloth business in Philadelphia before the war; lost one thumb in the army; served five years; works in sewing-machine factory; wages \$9 per week; rent \$8 per month,—appear to be neat and respectable people.

Hunneman Street, corner of Harrison Avenue.

This house is in an open, healthy location, and the premises are kept in good order. The owner has a store in the same building and extends his revenue by selling eatables and drinkables.

Visited family of P—— D——, laborer, who had not been able to obtain work since Christmas, with exception of a few days; wages \$1.67 per day; living room $18 \times 20 \times 8$, bed-room $14 \times 8 \times 8$; rent \$7 per month; wife goes out washing; one child sick in a crib, second child attends school—read accurately from the Catholic catechism, apparently the only book in the house; the general appearance of the family and their apartments was very neat. In answer to question, Mr. D. said that he was obliged to live upon low diet of bread and gruel, occasionally a bit of meat on Sunday.

Next visited Mrs. M——'s attic room; was out at work; family consists of three children, oldest 7 years, in charge of the other children and general housework; room very scantily furnished, bedding on the floor, broken stove, cradle and three chairs; children looking very pale and haggard. This family was in a most pitiable condition, poverty robbing the children of their very childhood and thrusting them into helpless degradation.

We could describe other tenement-house abominations* of the same foulness and beastly defilement, but it would be but a repetition of nastiness and negligence, and for which neither memory or dictionary could supply words not yet used, or language adequate to the filthy picturing. You that are incredulous of the narrative, go, look, be nauseated, be convinced, be justly angered and strive for the laws and for justice, and so help the wretched dwellers in these dens.

* The following statement relating to a manufacturing neighborhood in the eastern part of Hampden County will show that filth, over crowding, and disease and loss of life accompanying them are by no means confined to the city of Boston.

"Rooms in tenement and boarding houses, low in the walls, uncleanly, and far from sweet smelling. A physician in town who was called to attend a woman sick with typhoid fever, inquired how many occupied at night the room where she lay, and was answered that ten persons in all lodged there. The dimensions of the room were 15×13 , and low in the ceiling. This physician says that children are often taken sick in these houses and die without care or attention by either physician or nurse. The company have not tenements enough and so the rent is at a high figure and the operatives hiring them make up the extra cost by crowding in all they can. Nearly all are French Canadians, and not more than one person in four employed in the mill can read or write "

Indeed, what is to become of the poor as the narrow limits of the old city are trenched upon, and occupied for trade, traffic and travel? Commerce, crowding in both its imports and exports, demands room and pushes away all the lesser traffic. Traffic, thus crowded, demands room, and pushes all the lesser trade. Trade, thus elbowed out of place, demands room, and pushes away the rookeries of the poor and the domiciles of the rich even, like Death, that

“With equal pace, and stern, impartial fate,
Knocks at the palace and the cottage gate.”

The very temples of God retire before the surging tide of business, the sepulchres beneath them yielding up the bones of the dead, who, when living, chanted his praises and uttered their prayers within their consecrated walls.

Conveyance of passengers and of freight demands huge depots in its increase, and whole acres are denuded of habitation and habitant to answer the imperative call. The old proverb that “a man’s house is his castle,” into which not even the king could enter unbidden, is but a time-worn reminiscence, for the royalty of railroads, with more than kingly power, takes possession of home and house, turns adrift thousands of families, and sweeps away all vestige of their dwelling-place, with small, if any thought, towards what shelter they may direct their steps. What shall be done? On the peninsula of Boston every inch of room seems to be occupied, and the only step to be taken is to get by some means outside of it. Were this done by the better paid and more skilful workmen, the tenements they vacate might, for a while at least, suffice for the unskilled and poorer paid.

The agglomerating of semi-employed and low-paid people in our large cities is one of the monstrous evils of our age, and successful coping with it seems to be nearly impossible. Even gathering them into well-arranged and well-ordered city tenements, as in those erected in London by the trustees of the funds left by Mr. George Peabody, has some serious difficulties and objections. Dividing them off into homes of greater privacy, purer air and less compacted, distress would be better in not a few respects. Yet for the workmen who must, from the confining nature of their daily work, and from the necessity of be-

ing at hand wherever work is to found, it is as good as can probably be devised. Very many plans have been suggested to relieve the present pressure in Boston, and among them that of Hon. Josiah Quincy, by the creation of villages and homes at short distances from the city, and of easy access by means of conveyance by railroads at reduced cost. His plan is set forth in an earnest argument made by him before a legislative railway committee, wherein he advocated the establishment of cheap trains for the accommodation of the laborers who have hitherto had no compensation for the inconvenience and expense they have been obliged to incur, by being turned out of their homes in consequence of improvements connected with railway travel.

He put it on the ground first, of simple justice. Second, of the public advantage in promoting the health and efficiency of an important class of the community. Thirdly, he cited the example of Great Britain, which under a monarchical government does not forget the claims of the laborer in this respect, and has obliged the railroads to coöperate by providing cheap fares for those whose homes having been swept away in the march of improvement, resort to the country for relief. Various examples were then cited in England, Germany and France, where, by the establishment of suburban villages, the laboring classes had been taken from the close, crowded, unhealthy alleys of cities and manufacturing towns and placed in independent homes in the country, where fresh air and a small garden gave health and happiness to them and their children.

Mr. Quincy then mentioned that, at his instance, several associations of working-men had been formed for the purpose of obtaining dwellings by the adoption of that principle of solidarity or mutual responsibility of each for the whole, by which the people's banks and other associations in Germany have attained their well-known success, and through which the working classes of that country obtain such invaluable assistance.

The poorer classes are paying from 12 to 40 per cent. on the value of the houses they occupy, and his object was to procure houses and apply the difference between the rent they now pay and the interest on the value of the house, to a sinking fund for its ultimate purchase.

To obtain the funds, as an illustration, he stated that the best

class of tenement-houses, with a parlor, a kitchen, one chamber and a recess for another bed, were rented at \$3.50 a week or \$175 a year, and that he would give in the country a house with equal accommodation, and a small piece of land for a garden, for \$1,000, the interest on which would be \$70. By this arrangement, without any increase of rent, \$100 at least would go into a sinking fund for the purchase of the property,

To obtain the money required, Mr. Q. remarked that the savings banks were authorized by law to lend money on mortgage and a note with two guarantors. He proposed that the association should give a mortgage on the property and a guarantee of all the members that a fixed amount, equal to the rents that are now paid, should be deposited in the savings bank that made the loan, every month, to remain as a guarantee until a sufficient amount has been paid to make the mortgage a perfect security.

This plan, which will afford much relief and comfort to a certain class who are measurably able to assist themselves, will help the very poor only by lifting off the upper layers, so to speak, and releasing the lower thereby. But the poor whom we have met, and whose condition and homes we have described, are almost if not quite hopelessly bound down by poverty of means, poverty of leisure and poverty of knowledge, so that they are, as it were, shut out from the benefits of this excellent plan, excepting so far as the exodus of the class benefited makes room for those who remain behind. But it is a question for careful consideration, whether or not the reduction in the number of hours devoted to wage labor would not enable these also to do the same. Yet low-paid day-workers, men whose daily hunt is for a daily job, must be perpetually near to the hunting ground, if haply they may spy a chance for an honest pennyworth of work. So their chance for more room, better homes, and country air and surroundings, is not encouraging under present systems of work and wage.

POVERTY.

Starting in the labor problem from whatever point we may, we reach, as the ultimate cause of our industrial, social, moral and material difficulties, the terrible fact of poverty. By poverty, we mean something more than pauperism. The latter is

a condition of entire dependence upon charity, while the former is a condition of want, of lack, of being without, though not necessarily a condition of complete dependence. Want may, and usually does, imply desire, and desire indicates an intelligent appreciation of one's condition, with knowledge of a better state. But that poverty where desire is least felt is really the most appalling, as in the uncivilized races, whose extreme poverty is manifest in their motives and methods. Their demands are but for food, shelter and raiment, and these satisfy, even if of the poorest quality. To dig, to sow, to reap is the whole of their agriculture. The earth, grudgingly supplying their demands, is soon exhausted, and the fields that might, under culture, have teemed with fertility, become deserts. Their manufacture of raw material into raiment is as crude as their agriculture. Their shelter, a hut or cave, calls for no lofty imagination, no architectural beauty.

The poverty of the uncivilized is poverty of desire. Make them to desire, to yearn after; and then to know better things, awaken in them a motive, and that will call forth invention. Invention will increase production, production will stimulate consumption, consumption create other desire, until civilization shall take the place of barbarism. For because poverty of motive prevents invention, the negro and the coolie are alike made slaves to the richer and more inventive races. Too poor to devise, or to protect themselves, deficient in knowledge, in motive and desire, they fail to establish large and comprehensive combinations or to unite into nationalities, and so become the easy prey of the rich and more powerful races. They are so exceedingly poor that they cannot even own themselves. But when this first lesson in ownership is acquired, and the wish for freedom is born, that longing becomes the impelling motive of their lives, until at last, liberty gained, and desire begetting desire, the negro of the jungle stands forth the senator of the forum.

So too the unemployed and low-paid poor, crowded back step by step into pauperism, become really the unproductive slaves of the state, the barbarians of civilization, paying back crime, disease and death, in compound ratio, for oppression and neglect. All motive and all ambition dead, gazing with callous eye and soul upon disheartening surroundings, careless

and unmoved at consequences, they gradually, almost imperceptibly, sink down, and are absorbed into the ranks of pauperism, and thence into those of crime. Once there, it is almost as impossible to bring them back to the healthful and quickening influence of desire after good, as it is to create a soul under the ribs of death.

Closely connected with, and but a step above the pauper, is the drunkard, whose desire is the impulse of passion, and whose very consumption is but waste. His call is for such invention and production only as tend to accelerate the wreck of all spiritual, social and material blessings. The nutritious fruits of the earth are for him perverted into means to debauch, disfigure and destroy soul, brain and body, yea man himself, "made in the image of God." Of the poverty of these classes little further need be said, for the facts are patent and understood of all men. But of the poverty of the industrial classes, though more extensive than pauperism or drunkenness, little has been written and less understood. Indeed, it is quite often denied that the temperate, industrious workman or workwoman is poor, and it is as frequently declared that if temperate, industrious, thrifty, economical, prudent, saving, with all other requisite moral prefixes, no one of them can fail of becoming rich. None use this argument more frequently than those who, applying the term pauper to England's operative crowd, profess to dread its blighting advent at one time, and at another invite to our shores the worse pauperized heathen hordes of the East. Now the already accomplished influx of this pauper labor of Europe has achieved its intended object of checking the advance of wage, and consequent advance in culture of our own people, and wherever it has gained the mastery in numbers over the native element, and that is in very many of our manufacturing centres, it has changed home into houses, and made families to be mere crowds of lodgers, the family robbed of mother's care and children's prattle. The "Metal Working Company" of Bleyburg, in Belgium, teaches a wiser lesson, for it makes the wage of the father adequate to the maintenance of the whole family, and leaves the mother to perform all the duties of the home.

The statistics of wages and earnings which we have presented, both in this report and that of 1870, collected as they have

been from the books of the employers in nearly every department of labor, yield abundant evidence that the manual or wage laborer is but a very short distance removed from absolute want,—a want so near, that a revulsion, like that of 1837, might press them harder and bring them even to famine, a calamity once frequent, but now averted by the multiplicity of occupations, created by improvement in machinery, improvements that have their real origin in the increasingly expensive habits of a people, or in other words, in the more diffusive distribution of the wealth that enables a people to regard former luxuries as present necessities. For famine may come even with abundant crops, and does come to many whose work is checked by the coming of winter. The distribution of soup in our large cities shows the necessity of still freer and wiser distribution of the wealth which all help to produce. Such distribution would render soup-houses, poor-houses and all other merely temporary methods of relief unnecessary, and would, of course, do away with all contribution and taxation therefor; whereas now it must be assessed upon those to whom this inequality had brought the larger share. Now the distribution of wealth, like the distribution or conveyance of commodities, demands the freest and most expeditious processes. Long ago, the lumbered and slowly drawn wagon, and the uncertain sail-ship, of necessity, satisfied the merchant. Quarterly payment of wage satisfied the workmen, and yearly payment of bills was the best that tradesmen expected. But these are the memories of a past age. The railroad and the steamship make rapid and sure conveyance of freight, the tradesman calls for his dues four times as often as of yore, and the workmen get their wage monthly or weekly.

The opposition to the railroad and to the weekly cash payment was founded on the principle, in the first instance, that a surplus would be created, and in the second, that trade and enterprise would be checked; forgetting on the one hand that the method of accumulation was also the method of distribution, and on the other, that trade was quickened by a system of more frequent payments. But poverty generates a stagnation in everything, a stagnation of desires, a stagnation of hopes and expectations, a stagnation of knowledge, of culture, of refinement, of success. It kills, not makes alive, deadening, not

quickening, and spreads its funereal eclipse over the social sun, making a torpid day of nothingness and despair.

Now, the native working classes of Massachusetts, educated to some fair extent, have within them a steadily increasing and justifiable desire for improvement and betterness, and they strive to attain to them by quiet means. This is likewise true of all other classes of the working people who have attained to the smallest daring to think, and they crudely and rudely express their desire through agitations, trades unions, strikes, and so on, their knowledge of the means to reach the end being often as indistinct as a slave's knowledge of freedom. Men who get so far above the abyssmal depths of ignorance as to begin to see, to observe and to think, are sure to begin to desire. Now, these processes are not what the defenders of cheap labor prefer. Cheap laborers are not apt to be thinkers about much else than the mere procuring of bodily supplies, and to keep thought occupied about that, and that alone, is an efficient method of continuing that cheap labor so eagerly sought for by many employers. They want men and women in their employ whose ideas are limited to the supply of mere bodily wants,—to work that they may eat, and eat that they may work, with help of sleep and some show of clothing and shelter, and who, if any real thought at all visit their brain, it may be that they will utterly fail if they attempt anything beyond these functions, and so it is useless for them to try. For spite of the pleasing proverb that "what any one man has done another can do," it is very good poetry but very poor fact.

Now, the reality of the position is, that the sale of the laborer's merchandise is not governed by the state of the market, as is ordinary merchandise. It is governed by his own bodily necessities. Days' work is both uncertain and perishable. It cannot be accumulated, and each day or week lost or withheld is forever lost, and he begins to lean on the future for that support for to-day which the future will need for itself, thus selling his future stock, as a man who runs into debt loads the future with what to-day ought to bear, forgetting that "sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof," and therefore the future should not have a double burden to carry. His future stock then, being mortgaged for present needs, he can get no loans to

enable him to operate on the market, and though when he sells he sells for cash, each succeeding week finds its earnings mortgaged to the week before, and so his principal is gradually exhausted, he becomes bankrupt, and finds refuge, in old age, only in public charity. But the merchant, with sustained or reputed credit, keeps his capital in motion, and it continues to increase by its own innate power, each increase, like a boy's ball of rolled snow, enlarging all future increase. This the workman can never effect, unless he can by some rare contingency become a capitalist and employer.

Now, the hope of getting better wage, and so getting out of the slough of poverty, is the moving incentive to combination and strike; and although strike is generally a losing game, and even if successful, requiring long time at the higher wage to make up loss during its continuance, yet the workman knows, having no accumulation to lose, that if life and strength hold out, the advance will enable him or his children to live better, and perhaps to save something. His position then is one of dependence upon his necessities, and these are of a merely animal nature. He is in no position to cope with nor overcome any artificial, or even many natural difficulties in his way, such as an "overstocked market," or what is equivalent thereto, a "surplus" of workmen. In either or both of these cases, he is thrown out of work or reduced in wage, and then to him the price of everything practically rises, and one of two things ensues,—he must either reduce his standard of living, or forsake his special business for some other. But his very position of dependence prevents the latter, for his is not a dependence of hunger, clothing and shelter alone, it is a dependence of education and skill. He perhaps knows well but one branch of manual work, and into this have come the swarms of European immigrants at lower wages, crowding out the older and native workman. So that herein may be found a leading cause for the strong opposition to the importation of foreign labor, an opposition that in California has revealed itself in statute law and personal violence against the Chinaman.

The position of the workingman is also against him in the matter of contract. The merchant dealing with his class, stands upon a level, and in matters of trade is governed by the rule of trade, and bound in honor to treat his customers as his

equals. But in the contract between employer and employed the case is widely different. They occupy distinct social and pecuniary positions; and although honor binds the employer to deal justly with his employé in the fulfilment of the contract, such as it is, in the making or formation of that contract the workman has really no part. And hence trades unions are the only opportunities that enable workmen to stand anywhere near equality in this matter.

Without freedom of contract man is not free, but only seemingly free. The present disorder at the South arises in a great measure from the attempt of unrepentant rebels to make the freedom of the negro one of seeming only. And every considerable employer elsewhere, with hardly an exception to the rule, conducts his business on the principle that the employer has the sole right to regulate and decide the entire question of the hours and price of labor. Now the efforts so often made by bodies of workmen to have something to say and to do in this matter, that is, to have voice and action in determining this question, of paramount and vital consequence to them, to determine how much or how little they will sell, and under what conditions the sale shall be consummated, are but an attempt at freedom of contract.

And this leads us to the consideration of another, and, for this Report, the last embarrassing position of workmen, namely, the position of servility. For it is not the operatives in the textile mills alone that are kept down in the free and full expression of these rights because of the terror of discharge, but this terrorism extends into the mechanical and even into better paid branches of labor. We have letters from even salaried men, in various positions, corroborating this statement, and showing that discharge means banishment from the town where they reside as well as banishment from work, and in manufactories devoted to textile fabrics even more than that. We know whereof we affirm, when we say *that it is sometimes the practice to circulate names and descriptions of discharged employés, to prevent their obtaining employment in other places in the same business; and this for the free, lawful and rightful expression of opinion.*

Poverty, then, is inability of defence against aggression or oppression, in any form. That workman is very poor who is not

removed from want by at least a year. This implies ownership or control of house and land, and money enough to live for a year without work. Now, this poverty, though but of a class, affects the nation as a whole ; affects it in its productive capacity in time of peace, and its power of resistance in time of war. In our last report we gave a picture of the French work-people, whose poverty was shown to be more terrible than that of their English fellows. A short war has dispelled the glory of French arms, and the poverty of her people is the cause, as it has been the cause of her terrible revolutions. Fortescue, speaking of France, says : “ Whence it seemeth that poverty hath been the whole or chief cause of all such rising. The poor man hath been stirred thereto by occasion of his poverty to get food, and the rich man hath gone with them, because he would not be poor by the losing of his goods.”

Ensor says : “ General distress dissolves governments. Great and general distress occasions civil war, and the spoliation of property in the gross ; partial distress produces gang-robbery, as in India, while mitigated misery produces petty combinations, or solitary theft.”

Granting that our prevalent poverty is not of that degree of distress that shall provoke war, yet, if the poor are becoming poorer and the rich richer, as has been asserted by Commissioner Wells, it becomes the duty of statesman and philanthropist alike to examine the causes, with a view to the prevention of its further spread and ultimate extinction. Leaving to future reports the consideration of other aspects of this question, we pass to a brief consideration of poverty as a cause of intemperance.

INTEMPERANCE.

No question has so stirred the hearts of the humane as that of “ how to abolish intemperance.” The church, the press, the platform and legislation have each and all been repeatedly invoked, and the fullest and freest discussion been stimulated upon this most important theme. Societies for its cure, secret and open, have for years existed on a scale never equalled by those for any other reformatory object. Forces, religious, moral, social and political, have been brought to bear on whole communities by the aid of eloquence rarely matched and a litera-

ture rarely excelled. And yet this hope and life destroying monster devours its countless victims without relent or lessening, so that practically all means have failed to effect a conquest. The strong (!) arm of law has followed, after argument and persuasion have alike been paralyzed by a power that, to-day ruling all large cities, may ere long rule State and nation. Surely, then, the causes that make men drunkards, spite of argument and law, demand the most exhaustive investigation. And this call for investigation is made the more importunate by the assertion, repeatedly made, that work-people are poor because they are intemperate, though the armies of intemperance are recruited from the rich as well as from the poor. It is said every day and by almost everybody, that no men come to grief who keep sober, and that drink is the corner-stone of the temple of poverty. But may not the converse be true, that poverty is a cause of drinking, and that work-people are intemperate because they are poor?

Now, the first difficulty in the investigation is to unravel causes, and these are so intricately interwoven that most people despair of parting them, and so of solving the problem. Poor people drink and their drinking tends to greater poverty, and rich people drink and their drinking does not always decrease their riches. But is not this complication explained by the fact that the members of the great middle class, they who are neither very rich nor very poor, and therefore exempt from the temptations of great riches and great poverty, are the most temperate people and the most happy, and are regarded as the great moral, supporting power of the nations and the strong hope of the world?

Now, starting with the premise that the two extremes of society furnish the victims of this calamity, we say that intemperance grows out of extreme poverty and extreme riches.

Now to trace crime and suffering back to intemperance, and the drunkard's ruin to his first glass, is comparatively easy, and is the usual method of temperance advocates; when in reality there is a cause beyond this cause, the first glass being but a half-way house on the down-hill road, a result, not a prime mover. And with that as an article of our creed, we might consistently discuss the question of wage and the natural laws that govern the distribution of the products of labor, and what

elements ought to come in to generate a more equitable distribution thereof, so that both these unhealthy incentives may disappear. But that most important inquiry must be reserved for the present, and we must endeavor to show how these extremes accomplish the end we attribute to them. Let us look at three essential causes usually assigned: the power of custom, the power of fixed habit, and the desire for stimulants.

Without doubt, the power of custom or fashion is responsible for a large percentage of those who fall; therefore this percentage will decrease as the fashion changes for a better. In the words of a correspondent, "They who drink because others drink, will refrain when others refrain;" for if fashion so induces, fashion may deter; if it cause the habit, it may cure; as in the case of the gentleman who had always kept a supply of strong beer in his cellar, but who, on moving among neighbors where total abstinence was the rule, bought no further supply, lest, as he said, "he should appear odd." This cause then may be set aside as one of the least influential, and of hopeful change, and as, in fact, being more a result than a cause. But yet we may fairly ask, How came it to exist at all? Whence came the fashion? The answer, we think, is not difficult. It sprang from man's social nature, and is the expression of a desire to please and to make happy those who gather about us and under our roofs. It is one of the methods of good fellowship, varying in cost, as men vary in wealth and social position, running from sparkling champagne to fiery rum. To invite his associates to his home is not possible for the poor man, for really he has no home. He goes to a dreary house in a dreary alley, perhaps up a rickety "three-pair back" stairs, where neither brilliant light nor glowing warmth, nor well-dressed wife, nor carpet, nor picture, nor books, nor music allure. The bar-room is his parlor, his sitting-room, his library, his retreat in summer and in winter, his club-room, his political head-quarters, his church, and his pulpit. It is about the only place open to him, the only spot where he gets what little he knows of politics, religion and the fine arts. His music is the ribald song of fellow drunkards, his art lewd pictures cut from police gazettes and stuck upon the walls, his statuary the rough-cast, painted image of an Italian peddler, his articles of vertu the array of decanter and bottle along the showy shelf. Here, in noisy carousal,

the “treat” goes round, the poor vanity of the free-hearted meets its reward, the mean man is scorned, mad revelry speeds apace and “potations pottle deep” addle the poor unhappy brain,

“Till adder hiss and poisoning serpents roll,
And maddening devils frolic in the bowl.”

Such the poor man’s festival of death ; and not far off, in a fashionable street, in marble palace and rooms of richest adornment, with every appliance of art and refinement, rich music adding its voluptuous swell, the rulers of the land,—its statesmen, its scholars, its authors, its judges, its lawyers, its doctors, and, sooth to say, at times its clergy,—with just such matters of converse, but in more polished strain, with song of doubtful import, with jest of double meaning, with pictures of open exposure and statues of bald nakedness, whereat the uninitiated at first revolt,—these are holding their high festival, and “giving the hesitating wheels of life a gliblier play,” and their malarious influence, descending from them,—many of whom have too much wealth and too much leisure, to those who have too little of either,—creates and strengthens a damnable fashion. Well said Cassio, when he wished that “courtesy would invent some other custom of entertainment.”*

So in the two extremes of social life, intemperance, aided and urged on by fashion and by custom, hardens into habits and gathers its victims, rich and poor, stuffed or starveling, all alike, into clutch of graves where the fattening worm knoweth not and careth not whether his food be flesh of prince or beggar. With the second class before named we need not delay, for, looking as we are after the originating cause of this habit, we put the victims of fixed habit with the victims of fashion and of custom, and leave them.

But of the third class, those who drink from the desire of stimulants, we must say something more, disposing first of those in whom this desire is hereditary, for if only these latter drank, there might be hope of their gradual extinction, if physical cure could not perfect its function with them. Of the rest of the class, the greater part are the overworked (or what is the same thing, the irregularly worked), whose desire for stimu-

* Othello. Act II. Sc. 3.

lants should be met with nourishing food, and enough of it; with wholesome air, and enough of it; and with such earnings as will give the winning appliances of life, and render home a more alluring place than the bar-room,—and the underworked, whose desire should be met with the counteracting influences of profitable and productive labor of either hand or brain, or both.

We come, then, back to the first proposition: that the general cause of this fatal vice is to be found in the two extremes of society, which extremes centuries of practical error in the distribution of the products of industry have organized and crystallized into permanent fixtures, and we reach the conclusion that radical cure is only to be attained by radical change in this method of distribution, whenever and however it may be effected, such change protecting these most exposed classes in the most exposed moments of their lives.

The very poor and the very rich, then, constitute the classes most exposed to the temptation of intemperate drinking. Let us take one of the former as a type of his class. He has left home, at some eighteen or twenty years of age, to become a wage-laborer in a city of strangers. But he comes of a very poor household, well ordered though it may be; he has had small opportunity of social and intellectual advantages, and no taste has been created for culture and refinement, simply because poverty rendered it impossible. Had he left it earlier, he might have secured the benevolent sympathy of those kind hearts in every city that yearn towards a stranger-boy, simply because he is young and a stranger. Had he left it later, but with little practical knowledge of the world and the men and women thereof, and with little of natural moral force, he had been not so well fortified as the younger novice, though if possessed of native energy of moral will, and strong power of resistance (endowments of character inherited by him, not acquired), he might be held fast by these anchors, and outride any common storm of temptation. But omitting exceptional cases, we refer to the ordinary young man, whose natural moral bias is not vigorous enough to protect him from the assaults from which Christian civilization has not yet secured the peoples of Christendom.

The power to resist temptation and to throttle it is a very peculiar power. The witty and gifted are not always wise or

firm and may give way ; the simple and dull are not always complying and may stand fast, resisting allurements which may have made easy work with those of ten times their capacity. In fact, brains and wit may become the allies of temptation and minister to ruin, while dullness may become a “tower of defence.” Now, the young man of our type may be seen on any early evening, standing about the thoroughfares, under the awnings, loitering at depot or mail-office, waiting “for something to turn up.” His day’s work is over and the thought of toil must be banished till to-morrow. Body and mind are too much fagged for anything but amusement. His own room of seven by nine,—with its meagre furniture and uninviting bed, its mean equipment of scant carpet, handleless pitcher and broken bowl, resting on a rickety chair, and testifying to the long lapse of time since it was purged of its alluvial deposits ; his own attic room, with its walls of ancient whitewash unrelieved save by the bravery of some pictorial newspaper, its heat roasting him in summer and its cold freezing him in winter,—has neither cosiness, nor comeliness, nor comfort, nor allurements, and to the best rooms all access is forbidden, except when he enter one of them to feed on sparse food, weak tea, poor bread and butter for boarders. His room is his only home, (!) visited once a day by landlady or “hired help,” for the briefest “setting to rights,” a home nevertheless equal to any other one he could afford to hire on the small wage at which he and all his peers must work, or starve. His natural manners may perhaps be acceptable, his information tolerable, his conversation intelligent, were he only brought forward by some friendly sympathy. But he is a stranger in a strange land, and there is nobody to whom he can appeal. Even were some good fortune to throw in his way some good friend, he may have an innate pride that prevents his confession of loneliness and drives his starved nature back to feed upon its own stunted and meagre stores. He has worked all day upon a single, monotonous subdivision of his craft, bringing into play only a few faculties and leaving all the rest to profitless disuse. If a carpenter, and kept at making doors and nothing else, if a machinist, and kept at making screw-nuts and nothing else, if a watch-maker, and kept at making watch-springs and nothing else, and therefore ignorant of every other department of those handicrafts, he has,

after his day's fatiguing monotony, neither inclination, opportunity nor strength to look into their other details. He must be relieved by recreation, and the recreation that succeeds to labor must meet at least two requirements, to be healthful. It must entertain, so as to induce forgetfulness of the day's work, and it must be innocent and refining, so as to become a beneficial reminiscence on the day following. When, to the exclusion of all recreation, nothing but sleep interrupts thought of the day's work, a man may dream of his work, and the strain of the day passing on into the night, there is no rest to his soul. True and efficient recreation drives away the thought of toil and leaves behind pleasant and refreshing memories of itself.

Now, it is a noteworthy and singular fact, that even inferior considerations sometimes confirm men in general good conduct. Fear or loss of political standing, of general reputation in business, struggles to meet responsibilities, fear of the mere words of inquisitive neighbors, hedge them in, like the "divinity that doth hedge in kings." So true recreation is a protection, even though it be a recreation in mere trifles. But none of these supports prop up our young man; he is but like the empty bag that failed in its effort to stand upright. The elements within and about him are not encouraging. Yet he must go somewhere; he must do and have something. The civilization of our times has rejected, as too cruel even for the most criminal, the idea of prolonged solitary confinement, for it has been proved that to shut a human being away from all society is, if long continued, fatally destructive of the human mind, and the more advanced civilization of the future, if not its temperance philosophy, will revolt at the idea of forcing out, and pushing towards the temptations that lead to intemperance, any human being because of his poverty of purse and consequent poverty of culture.

Now, men must do something. Human nature revolts at the vacuum of idleness. They must work or play, read or think, sing, converse, listen, travel, dance, or sleep. That state of society gives the best harbingers, which most inspires the greatest number to continued activity of some sort, affording to all proper opportunities every hour of the day and every day of the year. As long as any considerable number exists who ask in vain for good homes, pleasant places of amusement, proper

associates with whom to converse, or opportunities to bring into exercise those qualities and endowments that will contribute most to their advantage and pleasure, just so long will the seductions of improper allurements make steady additions to the ranks of infamy and drunkenness. If 30,000 drunkards die annually, there will be 30,000 recruits enlisted to fill up the drunken ranks out of our population of 40,000,000. What shall save them ?

But let us not forget our young-man illustration. He has finished his evening meal, and returning to his room he rummages closet or trunk in hope of finding something that may yield suggestion of amusement. 'Tis all in vain, and, disappointed and disheartened, he gazes from his window upon the countless chimney-tops that choke the ambient air with their effluvia ; his glimmering lamp dies out in fetid smoke of kerosene, and sick and sorrowful he quits the dreary scene, and makes for the street, the only place, so far as he knows, to which he has a right. A dangerous place is this street, for there badness in every variety stalks and talks its ribald slang, and temptation, in garb of varied seducing, lurks for its prey, and he is just the fly to be lured to its parlor. Loitering there and then, under all such circumstances, that moment is to him, morally, about the most perilous moment of his whole life. The tempter is upon him, and his training, or rather his want of training, renders him utterly unprepared to meet the foe, and he is vanquished at the first assault.

His steps, however, do not lead directly to the light, warm, alluring and welcome saloon. His wages are not sufficient to lift him to that level. He has the same human impulses that a king, president or governor, or any of the more intellectual, would manifest, if shipwrecked, or driven into a corner of the earth where their only society was a few ignorant comrades. He takes what and whom he can get. Little and few, at first, for his appetite is yet dormant. He has even yet to take his first glass, not having forgotten the pledge by which his mother and his Sunday teacher bound him. He holds before him that weak, last shield for awhile, and for awhile only. That at last is broken, and down he goes before the deadly swoop, and cheap rum becomes his cheap ruin, cheap wages cheapening even this horrible resort.

But not all the street loiterers that we see, take this rough course. Some have sufficient self-control to hold back till less straitened circumstances enable them to move towards genteeler resorts. Increase of wage may help to gild the ruin with a brighter shine, and deck the road to death with some parade of ornament. But however it may be, ruin and death are the common terminus of each path, rough or bright.

Now this is the map of the life of many a poor young man of average strength of mind and principle. Yet there are better things to be painted. Many have the power of self-control, and keep the tempter at bay. Increase of wage is to them increase of culture and happiness. Improved circumstances move them into safer surroundings. A home, a wife, a family, a character achieved for trustworthy goodness, refined amusements and a thousand hallowing associations form the ramparts over which no foe can clamber. These persons give thoughtful society no cause of anxiety. In fact, they become the valued and reliable support of society, and "honor and riches are in their path." They are safe for society; they become the safety of the state, and we can safely leave them.

Now, the peculiar temptations that come to those on the one hand, who, through their poverty, have but little more than a place wherein to sleep and eat, and those on the other hand whose surplus wealth places them where they have *nothing to do*, cannot be observed too carefully, for they explain the secret beginning of many a man's vices. Athletic games and amusements, theatres, travel, the pursuit of polite literature and commanding positions, do much to save many of the sons of the wealthy from dissipation. But the one thing lacking, a lack that in too many cases proves fatal, is *employment*, and employment adapted to their peculiar capacities. The effort of the wealthy classes to substitute gymnastic sports, boat-racing, cricket, base-ball frolics and the billiards of the club-room, for productive employment in labor that blesses him that works and the world worked for, is simply unnatural, and can no more succeed than the attempt to substitute sleep by day for sleep by night. Labor is God's beneficent ordinance for man, exercising, by a decree of a marvellous prescience, both body and mind, and to despise it, and live idly, as thousands of the mere inheritors of wealth are doing, is

practical contempt of God's bounty, and rebellion against his intelligent decree. These sports, well enough as mere recreation, but poor enough as employment, add nothing to the world's material advance, while they minister very imperfectly to the physical necessities of those who use them as exclusive occupations. Upon this subject, a correspondent who has given the theme much thought, says:—

“The long-protracted and excessive labor of the prevalent industrial system practically excludes the sons of the rich from participation therein, so that they seldom get any nearer to it than the office or counting-room, where, as clerks, they merely record the doings of the real doers. The artisan and farm laborer are, in their several specialties, trained and hardened to the unusual strength and habits of living which the present system demands; and a violent and hateful revolution in the habits, customs, ways of living, and physical training of the more leisurely classes would be necessary to enable them to enter the ranks of labor in competition with those who do nothing else but labor.

“Only the professions and clerkships, therefore, are open to the rich man's son of ordinary capacity; and under such circumstances it is easy to imagine that many a skilful artisan in many an art, is lost in the attempt to fit all the boys of fortune for ministers, lawyers, physicians or merchants. Failure, if not disaster, will often result from the ambition to insist upon a career for which the subject has no natural taste or capacity. Such boys are, of course, the dunces in high school and college, and the success of their comrades at each day's recitation, only heightens their mortification and discouragement. Somehow they don't like to study Greek or mathematics, and they can't help it. They had rather *do* something. Marked low at every term, they lose caste, and at twenty are ripe for a rebellion against the profession or career which proud parents have marked out for them. Disgusted rather than instructed, at the young man's apparent want of ambition, his parents lose much of hope and interest, and he himself turns away to dress, parties, excitement, and to hours and days of *idleness*; and then the tempter comes! He has ‘nothing to do!’ To be saved he must be employed, and usefully employed. No one has discovered what he is good for! and his training has not furnished him with an occupation suited to his station. In his devices to ‘kill time,’ which hangs so heavy upon his hands, what is to save him from stepping down into a lower circle, which never heard of his failure at college,

and where, for his money and position, he will be courted, flattered and spoiled? Can any wisely reflecting parents be willing that their sons shall take the risk of having, at twenty, nothing to do? Yet this is the situation of hundreds of rich young men in our large cities. It is excessive wealth which makes their 'hours of idleness' possible; and their presence at the gorgeous saloon does much to make it fashionable, and give it repute. Yet who can describe the sense of utter worthlessness which must come from a simple waste of time, or from permitting precious faculties to rust from disuse? What comfort can there be in laying down at night, tired for not having had the refreshing fatigue of honest work? All about are useful, and happy in their usefulness, the very children happiest to leave their sports and 'help.' Idleness, that most terrible of all stagnations, means moral and social rottenness and corruption; and intemperance is only a single manifestation of it.

"A state of society that furnishes every year a large number of youth who have 'nothing to do,' no ideas to carry out, not even a *hobby* to ride, has created a power for profligacy that is sure to manifest itself in some form or other of dissipation. If by any legislative miracle, or divine interposition, the knowledge of distilling intoxicating beverages were to become one of the 'lost arts,' and drunkenness were thereafter impossible, the infernal seed would spring up in other forms, claiming for its victims the same class that now frequent the dram-shops and saloons. To banish the dram-shop is one thing, but to break the chain of circumstances that first turn men's faces towards some manner of vicious indulgence, is another and a much greater thing."

It is said that the rare success of the temperance movement in Ireland, under the leadership of Father Mathew, was followed by an increase of licentiousness. If that be so, it shows that men must be curbed all around; and inasmuch as no human being is fully educated until to the education received from books, from school and from social life, he has added the discipline of actual and regular employment, manual dexterity in some productive handicraft must supplement what mental training fails to supply, and then no hour of the day will torment him with listlessness, and no beguiling of tempters seduce him to do evil.

Now, whatever the circumstances under which a man begins to indulge, whether because of the excitement of associates, or the impulse of extreme poverty or that of extreme wealth,

there is soon quickened into life an insatiate appetite of unbridled voracity. The rich drinker and the poor may have exchanged their relative places of want and of wealth, but each continues to drink because this hankering passion “ravens like a wolf” and defies control, so that now neither custom nor riches nor poverty account for its continuance, though we believe that the force of companionship is a stronger ally than that of appetite. And hence comes the positive necessity that attempt at reform should be strengthened by self-exile from associates as much as by denial of desire, and this same unfriending is a task even more severe than that of denial, because society is an innate necessity of man, that cannot safely be long denied him. Man dreads solitude, spite of

“the charms
That sages have found in its face.”

He shrinks from isolation, and no more powerful foe assails the good resolutions of attempted reform than the yearning for companionship, free, full and unpatronizingly equal.

The attempt to legislate dram-shops out of existence will succeed only after they who have faith in such legislation shall be so increased in number as to leave the opposition in too helpless a minority to rally at the polls, and after contiguous States shall have fully harmonized in prohibitory legislation. For in principle, prohibition is as right in the poison that cometh of liquor, as in that which cometh of small-pox, cholera, the cattle disease, or any other contagious malady; but it will not prevail to successful issue, notwithstanding the strong moral and economical considerations which aid it, so long as it is overmatched by a compact, well-organized interest, of ready wealth, that can buy up leading minds in advance of their conversion to the doctrines of temperance. And so, they who struggle in the great and good cause now, must flank the foe by concentrated effort to abolish poverty by means of a more equably diffused distribution of the wealth produced by labor, so that, no longer monopolized by the few, the many shall be able to possess such comfortable surroundings of home, books, furniture, society, culture, refinement and other appropriate immunities, as shall, by their educational influence, educate them out of the power of every vulgarizing allurements. And (to quote farther from our correspondent):—

"The temptation," he says, "that leads a man to *sell* rum should not be forgotten. It is a way—in many cases the only way, seemingly—of 'getting a living.' It is the poverty or labor question, again, that crops out in the conduct and compromises, even of the most honored in society. He who on this point 'is without sin,' whose honest convictions are never smothered that his 'situation' may be saved, 'let him cast the first stone.'

"The rumseller is asked to abandon his business and get his living by some other method. But how easy is it for men to change their occupations and succeed? In the rumseller's case the temperance idea begins, or should begin, by making it *easy* for every industrious and frugal worker to get a better living than is now obtained by wage-labor. Clerks and office-holders get lighter work, and, in most cases, fair pay while in business; even in rumselling there is the chance, the remote possibility at least, of securing vastly more. The wage laborer economizes for years, that with his small accumulations he may finally lift himself into a position where he can begin to make profits on other men's labor, or its results; and in the exodus of so many artisans from their life-long vocations into the small shop and saloon-keeping class, of course the liquor business takes its share."

The first step, then, towards radical reform, is to be made in a direction wholly different from those usually pursued. For though prohibition is right in principle, and therefore not to be abandoned, it must be made to reach clear back through drinker and seller to manufacturer, and restraint must be applied to all. But as a cure it never has been effective, and it is greatly doubted whether it ever will be. It will unquestionably diminish drunkenness, both by making it costly to make and sell, and therefore less profitable, and by closing open bar-rooms and shutting up the worser dens of vice. The friends of license claim that license will do this as well, but license and licentiousness are not heterogeneous nor undisposed to join hands, and prohibition and license are remedial, not curative. The disease is beyond their reach. Laws of restraint inflict punishment, to be sure, but reaching the result only of crime, namely, the criminal, they fall short of the cause of the crime. Neither lewdness nor licentiousness have disappeared before the frowning face and threatening phrase of the law, nor will drunkenness disappear till society shall itself be regenerated by the dis-

continuance of the present mode of distributing the wealth produced by labor, and, under a more diffusive and equitable division, both extreme riches and extreme poverty become memories of past generations, strange, incredible and unpleasant to dwell upon.

If poverty, then, lies at the foundation of intemperance and crime, the attention of statesmen and philanthropists alike should turn toward the solution of the problem of how to abolish the cause. The best enginery that the ingenuity of Christianity could invent has been brought to bear upon crime for ages. Cure, and, what is far better, prevention, both by moral suasion and legal force, have been attempted in multitudinous variety of effort. But this effort has been directed more against the outposts and pickets than against the strong inner citadel itself; its outposts and outlying pickets being theft, robbery, murder, intemperance, prostitution and the endless catalogue of its heterogeneous offspring in all their forms of iniquity. If breaches can be made into the central stronghold; if that can be carried by assault; if its walls can be razed to the foundation; the foundation itself and the whole structure be utterly demolished, and the debris irrecoverably cast into a bottomless ocean, then small trouble will be had in the overthrow and destruction of all lesser outlying defences. The abolishment of poverty by methods at once natural, enlightened, satisfying, thorough and permanent, which shall create a condition of society wherein shall be found a more equal distribution of wealth, or the means of living, without agrarianism and with no disturbance of the general social status, would be the abolishment of crime.

To some extent there is now a distribution of wealth, through the wage system, by which all but the pauper get a share; how meagre the share of some, can be seen by visiting the tenement houses described on pages 517 to 531. It may be *little*, very little, too little, speaking of honest people, not of rogues,—rogues of any variety; whether of the small, sneaking rogues who filch their means in a small, sneaking way, or of the magnificent and bold burglars who force it from strong-bolted safes, or of the colossal robbers who agglomerate colossal riches by colossal rascalities or by cunning villanies in cornering a market, either of stocks or of merchandise, and so exalt themselves upon the ruin

of thousands of others, exaltation and power generally following riches with small questioning of how they were attained.

But we speak of the great mass of the people of industry, either of brain or of hand, who have earned what they have by honest effort, and these make up by far the greater proportion of our communities. Now, this mass of the people are people of small means, the result of daily earnings which supply each daily returning want, and are contingent upon continuous health and continuous work. But, with the exception of some few in-door employments, continuous work is the exception and not the rule. And it may be safe to say of out-door employments, that of the 309 working days of the year, fifteen per cent. should be deducted for non-employment, leaving, say 263 days of remunerated labor, so that the workman, at \$2 a day, will have \$526 as his year's earnings, if he have no loss by sickness and permit himself no vacation.

Now, the problem is, how to make these earnings more, and so benefit the workman, or, as the mere drudging laborer may be in his generation too low down to be much helped, how to manage matters that his children may be educated, by better preparation and culture, to better things than their father enjoyed. In neither case can it be done hurriedly. It must be done gradually. The masses cannot jump out of a present low condition into a higher one. Theodore Parker said wisely, "Nature never takes leaps." She moves by slow degrees, and slowly supplies her fruits. The existing wage system, by means of which the laborer gets his gains, although responsible for the present inequality in the distribution of the proceeds of labor, cannot and will not be advanced at a spring. It would be disorganizing and disastrous to attempt it, and those who say or suppose that such revulsion is expected or desired, wholly misinterpret the argument. What is advocated, desired and hoped, is a gradual abandonment of a system of wage, and a gradual adoption of a system of coöperation, the effect of which will be to distribute more evenly the profits of the labor, to abbreviate the time to be given to labor, to abolish poverty, and to elevate humanity. The friends of coöperation look upon it with an enthusiasm of hope and faith, that words fail to represent. They say it is the millennium of labor, settling the whole question, and bringing men so much nearer to each

other, that nearness will dissipate all the discordant elements, that, like interposing mountains, make men to be men's worst enemies.

If the causes of robbery, murder and kindred felonies be thoroughly analyzed, they will be found to have their origin in a desire to get by a jump what the perpetrators have not got, the haste after wealth leading them to spring at once into its possession, and so violating nature's rule of slow and sure progress. Now, had these parties been reared in communities wherein coöperation, by its adjustment of the profits of labor, had enabled each parent to give to his children such education as would fit them for the duties of after-life, such crime, nay any crime, would never be known.

But what is coöperation? It is simply the united effort of two or more experts in some given trade, in a harmonious and advantageous accomplishment of the objects of such trade. It is the substitution of republicanism into trade, in place of the prevalent despotism of one man controlling the labor of hundreds or thousands, and neither republicanism nor coöperation can exist except among an educated and thinking people, and all our people are not yet up to that point of culture which will insure the success of coöperation. But they are improving, and will in the end attain to the requisite standard. Increased time to the laborer for increased culture implies increased power of invention, increased power of invention implies increased power of machinery, and this last implies increased product. Increased product implies decrease of work time, and this last implies increase of time for increased culture, and increased culture implies increased power of invention, and so the circle is completed, and each and all gearing into each and all, keep the great wheel of human improvement revolving, and the whole machinery of human progress in steady motion.

A hundred years ago, inventors were mobbed and their inventions destroyed by the very class which would have been most benefited by them, on the insane idea that increased product meant decreased bread, when really increase of product, giving decreased cost, made that cost a decrease to themselves, as well as to other people, and therefore gave to themselves the greater power to purchase.

They ignored the true problem, the solution of which is the

anxiety of our day, how to effect a more general and equal distribution, since with that comes a class of influences which, by perpetual reaction, reproduce a sort of moral perpetual motion, these elements working into each other, and being the supplements of each other. For all are more wealthy for intelligence and the more intelligent for wealth, the converse being equally true, that all are the more ignorant for poverty, and the poorer for ignorance ; nay, the very “destruction of the poor is their poverty.” So the production of wealth is augmented by its more even distribution, and its more even distribution is the better secured by its more rapid production. Now, a leading study of political economists and politicians should be, not so much the increase of wealth, as its distribution. Preëxisting and present systems have tended to its absorption into few hands, and we have had, and yet have, men so inordinately rich, that their very riches become useless,—in some cases worse than useless, positively disastrous, as disastrous and useless as the power of Midas, whose touch turned everything into gold, and so he starved to death for sheer want of bread and water. But let it not be said of a more even distribution, that that measure involves agrarianism and robbery, and that it would be of no avail, since the wasteful would continue to waste, and the thrifty to thrive, and that the thrift of some is only the gathering up of the waste of others. That may all be now, but such waste is to disappear whenever a right condition shall teach men the true value and meaning of both time and wealth, and when wealth and time shall both supply men with a right education. Every man of common sense, and everybody of uncommon sense, revolts at any such idea as that of pulling down the rich to exalt the poor, of destroying wealth to vivify poverty, which would be the destruction of the very means by which it is hoped that better results than inordinate and unnecessary wealth and inordinate and unnecessary poverty may be secured. Time is said to be money ; but the proverb has been turned to a bad use, and made to mean that the employment of all time is to result in all money, and money has been exalted above man, although its proper and just use is to exalt man in the noblest sense of exaltation, by making and keeping him superior to money. So it has been deemed that many hours of time per day should be devoted to the acquisition of money, while, by

parity of reasoning, money should be the means of saving time to man, time wherein to promote his own bettering. Under the old English rule in factories, eighteen hours a day were given to work, and six to food and sleep,—work by both adults and young children,—and long hours continued to be the rule till a fierce public cry demanded a change, and the slow and hesitating law at last compelled a reduction, the eighteen hours, after a long struggle, becoming ten. Here in Massachusetts, we have not yet deemed man to be of more value than money, and we seem to be of opinion that machinery was not made for man, but man for machinery, and so we keep them at it, and magnify the cry that we must have cheap labor, when experience has proved that cheap labor is the dearest, for it makes everything poor in quality and dear in price.

Our visit to Mr. Sampson's establishment at North Adams, where Chinese coolie laborers are employed at shoemaking, convinced us of this fact. We found there seventy-three men, clad in cotton cloth, with cheap Chinese hats and shoes. Their dining-tables were made of pine boards, without covering; their chairs were wooden benches, their sleeping-places bunks on the sides of a hall, with thin mattresses and scant bedding. The dinner-set for every six persons, was a bowl for each, a platter filled with boiled pork, and boiled potatoes cut into bits, a tin pan filled with boiled rice, with ladle to dip it into each man's bowl; and their table cutlery, a pair of chopsticks for each; what tea they took, being taken in the same rice bowl. Now, what industrial production is stimulated by such a laboring population? The woollen and cotton mills of Lowell and Lawrence, of Fall River and Salisbury, the cutlery establishments of Shelburne Falls, the furniture factories of Essex and Worcester counties, the hat factories of Methuen, the boot and shoe factories of Milford, Bridgewater and Lynn, nay more, the authors, the publishers, the newspapers, the expressmen, the railroads, yea all the varied industries of the Commonwealth, would be brought to ruin, under such a method of "breaking down the nuisance of trades unions,"—the accomplishment of which is the declared intent of the introduction of this cheap and ignorant labor. Is not the remedy worse than the disease, if disease there be?

Now this course of action and this method of reasoning are

practically saying, that inasmuch as the intelligence of laborers born here, or here for a series of years, has been so far cultivated by better wages, by better educational opportunities and advantages (these last free to all), that they have learnt how to organize for protection and improvement ; and, as such educated intelligence makes men less subservient and less manageable, a new class of laborers must be introduced, whom poverty and ignorance have rendered both submissive and docile. Such are these Asiatics, like the hinds of the rural districts of England, and her rough and hardy navvies, for these, like an unbound fagot of sticks, having no aggregated power by combination, are quietly managed, and controlled with perfect ease. And further, this new class, by bringing down the standard of daily living, and consequently of wage, among our own laborers, is expected to remedy the dissatisfaction now prevalent among working-men, a dissatisfaction manifesting itself in associations, strikes and other tokens of discontent. That is, by creating an over-supply of laborers, and thus making labor cheap, the unquiet laborer is to be made quiet, and glad to take any wage that may be offered him, and to be gradually tranquillized into that content which cometh of hopelessness. Or, as it may be otherwise put, by checking the spirit of independence, now wakened into quicker life by increased intelligence, to substitute, in its place, unthinking and imbecile poverty, its concomitant ignorance, and consequent despair. But, as knowledge is more contagious than ignorance, specially in a land of free schools, it must not be forgotten, in the introduction of ignorant among educated laborers, that the reverse of all this may follow, and that levelling up may disconcert levelling down. So that even the Chinese laborer, justly celebrated as a quick and close imitator, may quite likely, and at no very distant day, imitate the habits and customs, the ways and methods of his brother craftsmen in the boot and shoe trade ; and consequently be more than likely to aspire to the grade of wage of that trade, a trade in which, eminently among manual craftsmen, the standard of wage has been kept up, by means, as they allege, of their trade union, and which, as they further allege, has improved their morals, their means and their habits. Any long delay by these foreigners, in availing themselves of these benefits, will justify the

belief that they are, by some form of contract, bound down to a serfdom of some sort, and of longer or shorter duration.

Hours of Labor.

But to return : we have said that cheap labor means cheap men and cheap women, and dear labor dear men and dear women, and we now add that cheap men and women are servile, docile, cunning, dishonest and dangerous people ; and that dear men and women are independent, honest, brave and safe citizens. Now, it is true that cheap men are obliged to work many hours, and that as they become dearer they desire their number of hours of work to be reduced, and this desire is universal, not confined to any state, nation or race. The process which makes men think is the process which makes them dear. The agitation for shorter time for a day's work commences in a people with pressure of thought, consequent upon increased opportunities. It is not chargeable upon demagogues or fanatics ; it is directly chargeable upon Christianity and civilization. This is the perpetual question, never disappearing, though others arise and pass away. It stirred England as the anti-slavery question stirred us. Without concert of action, without correspondence, without money to foist it, it has stamped the statutes of most countries with the imprint of its demand. In one year (1867) it spread over our country like wildfire. Parties, both in state and nation, have bowed to it ; but thus far the people have moved on without an intelligent appreciation of the problem. In our own State this question has a double form. The factory element, the cheapest labor in the State, demanding ten hours ; the mechanics, the dearest labor in the State, and perhaps in the world, demanding eight hours.

These demands are made for separate, though not conflicting reasons. The demand for ten hours is founded upon the principle of Christian humanity ; the operative claiming that eleven hours per day is more than human strength can well sustain, and that a reduction to ten would improve the people in both health and morals.

The demand for eight hours is founded on the principles of political economy and social science.

To prove the soundness of the ten-hour claim, the operatives

instance the reduction in the past, from sixteen to fourteen, to thirteen and to twelve, and from twelve to eleven hours. They also point to the twenty-one years' experience in Great Britain, where the reduction was made in 1850 from twelve to ten, a reduction of one-sixth of the working day. In our last Report (page 129) we gave the testimony of an observer, W. A. Abram, showing the effect of that reduction, and we could supplement that by the testimony of Gladstone, Roebuck, the Earl of Shaftsbury, and a host of names of world-wide fame, as well as with the names of hundreds of physicians and clergymen, hundreds of manufacturers and thousands of work people. Now, against this humble demand for one hour more of time for health and home, made in the interest of women and children, and in the face of past experience and well authenticated facts, our manufacturers present the following objections:—

1st. That working in a mill ten hours a day is just sufficient to pay the expenses of the establishment, the cost of the goods manufactured and the wages of the workmen.

2d. That the manufacturers must of necessity maintain their present ratio of profit, for they are already reduced to the lowest possible amount in consequence of the competition with which they have to contend, or give up business altogether.

3d. That the manufactories would not go on without a profit, and so the men would be discharged and the mills be stopped.

4th. That it would drive capital out of the State.

5th. That it would drive the best operatives into some other State where they could work as many hours as they pleased.

6th. That it would encourage foreign competition.

7th. That it would reduce the wages of the operatives.

8th. That capital in the long run would "have its revenge," overpower the laborer and throw the whole loss upon their wages.

9th. That the productive capacity increases with increased hours and decreases with decreased hours of labor.

10th. That work in factories is eminently healthy, very few dying while operatives.

11th. That fewer hours of work mean more dissipation, and more hours of work less dissipation.

12th. That legislation is interference between labor and capital.

13th. That legislation is interference with the law of demand and supply.

14th. That legislation on the hours of labor destroys personal freedom in the matter of contract.

15th. That the operatives do not desire ten hours.

These objections cover the whole ground of the opposition, and have been repeated, in full or in part, from 1802 down to 1871. They were urged in the debates in the British Parliament during the discussion of the ten-hour bill (1843), and have been repeatedly brought forward in discussions in other legislative bodies from that time to this. An examination of them proves the truth of Lord Ashley's (afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury) statement, that "even supposing these assertions to be separately true, they cannot be collectively true. It is perfectly fair to place before us a variety of possible contingencies, but it must not be urged that we are threatened by a combination of them. Any one event may occur, but such an occurrence prevents the full accomplishment of the other." For instance, if production is diminished, there is less liability of overstocking the market, and so wages are less likely to be reduced, yet it is upon this plea that wages are oftentimes reduced. Again, if this diminished production is accompanied by a corresponding reduction in wages, it will give increased profit, arising from the saving in wear and tear of machinery, artificial light, lubricating oil, coal, &c., &c. If profit is diminished by wages not being reduced, and the manufacturer stops and finally emigrates, the depleted market caused by this stoppage or removal will lead other capitalists to invest in the business, and the people who have emigrated will immigrate back again.

We need not, therefore, fear the accumulation of evils. It must be one or the other of them, or neither. Will it be diminished product? The experience of England for a quarter of a century proves that production has *increased*.

England is the great manufactory of the world. Her discipline is as stern and her machinery more perfect than ours. That machinery has been improved during the shorter time to a remarkable extent is true, but the machinery of the prior time was as perfect to its time and the then demand of the market as ours is to our time and our demand. Improvement in the

textile industry, though surpassing that in other industries, is but in its infancy. For seven years, at one time, there was little appliance of inventive skill to this business, and many persons even supposed that woollen machinery had reached its highest development. Manufacturers of woollens said, years ago, that further improvement in their machinery could not be made, yet since then many of them have introduced new machinery into their mills.

Now, an overstocked, which is only a badly distributed market, offers no stimulus to invention, for invention is the child of necessity (demand). The boot and shoe trade, the watch and sewing trades, have provoked invention a great deal more. But to return: England has found that increased leisure for the operative has brought increased wages, increased invention, increased production and increased consumption; for there and everywhere the rule holds good, that the rise of wages, following the reduction in hours of work, gives a brisker market. There is another reason, and an important one, why there will be no diminished production; and that reason is found in the fact that human machinery,—brain, hands and feet,—will not, cannot work midst the whirl of machinery, however favorable the rooms, above a certain point to any productive advantage. A loom cannot be speeded above a certain rate, the weaver (however light the work) cannot be worked above his or her physical capacity, without detriment to weaver, loom and cloth. The testimony of all candid men agrees that the last hour of the eleven is the least productive. The testimony of every agent, superintendent and overseer with whom we have conversed corroborates this. From blanks received from the Holeyoke Mills we extract the following figures: The production of 436 persons, working 11 hours a day for 26 weeks, was 375,340 dozen of spools of cotton thread; and the product of 356 persons, working $8\frac{1}{4}$ hours a day for 5 weeks, was 52,790 dozen spools. Reducing each of these to the product of one person per hour, we find that under the 11 hour system each person produced $6\frac{1}{10}$ spools per hour, while under the $8\frac{1}{4}$ system each person produced $7\frac{1}{10}$ spools per hour, giving an advantage per hour under the shorter system of $1\frac{7}{10}$ spools per hour. That is, a reduction of $3\frac{3}{4}$ hours or 33 per cent. of time, resulted in a loss of only 9 per cent. or $\frac{1}{11}$ of production. To this may be

added the testimony of the treasurer of the Atlantic Mills, where the reduction has resulted in no loss of production, but an actual gain in the finer qualities of goods.

That it is not fear of a diminished product is further evinced by the fact that mills often run on half or two-thirds time, or stop altogether, or, as was the case in Fall River, reducing wages and practically inaugurating a strike, a strike which really resulted in a pecuniary gain to the mills. It is the fear of *diminished profit* consequent upon the increased wages that will follow a reduction of the hours of labor, that causes the opposition to the measure. All experience has proved that long hours eventually lessen production, increase cost, and exhaust the vitality of the laborer,—just as certainly exhausts it as excessive product exhausts the vitality of land. The reduction from sixteen to fourteen, and from fourteen to twelve hours per day was simply humanitarian. It would be an outrage to have to work a beast that length of time, and vastly more outrageous to work man, whom God had made in his own image, and to whom he had given dominion over every living thing that moved upon the face of the earth.

The reduction from twelve to ten is advocated on utilitarian reasons, it being believed that faithful, educated laborers, when the lessened time of labor shall afford them time for culture, will produce as much in ten as in twelve hours, and that when poverty shall have been abolished, with all its dreadful concomitants and results, then labor will produce more in still less time.

We have shown that the reduction in the hours of labor from eleven to ten will not decrease production, because, however light the work, the strength of the operative will not admit the continued strain. And here it may be well to call attention to the matter of light work. Granting that the work of the operative is light, it does not prove that it is not equally tiresome and exhaustive as heavy work. The friends of the ten-hour bill in England had to confront this argument of light work on every hand. The following extract from Grant's "Factory Legislation" (pages 71, 72) will show how they convinced Lord Palmerston on this fact:—

"Our statements concerning the hardships to which factory children were subject at first appeared to puzzle the noble viscount,

and after a short pause the veteran statesman said, 'Oh! the work of the children cannot be so hard as you represent it, as I am led to understand the machinery does all the work without the aid of the children, attention to the spindles only being required.' To carry conviction to a mind so strongly impressed with the ease and comfort of factory labor, for a moment staggered the deputation, when a lucky expedient at once occurred to the writer, who, seeing a couple of large lounging chairs upon castors, called them to the rescue. Running them into the centre of the large room, they were made to perform the operation of the 'spinning mule,' Mr. Haworth being placed, as it were, at the 'wheel handle,' and with arm and knee pushing them back to their destination, or to what is technically called 'the roller-beam,' whilst the writer performed the duties of the piecer, trotting from one side of the room to the other, following up the carriage, leaning over the imaginary advancing 'fuller,' and piecing up the supposed broken ends. To complete the explanation of the mule, and to show the part the engine performed, they were about to explain by what power the carriage was caused to advance slowly whilst the 'stretch' was being made and the yarn twisted; the noble lord at once caught the idea, and ringing the bell, the footman was ordered into the room and directed to run up one of the chairs slowly to its appointed place (or what is called the end of the stretch), whilst the noble lord, catching hold of the other chair, performed a similar office. Thus the imaginary spinning and piecing was carried on for several minutes. Lady Palmerston, who by this time had become impatient for her drive before dinner, entered the room, and appeared no little surprised to see her banqueting room turned into a spinning factory. Her ladyship, however, seemed to enjoy the illustration, and good-humoredly remarked, 'I am glad to see your lordship has betaken yourself to work at last.' The veteran statesman, who appeared a little fatigued by performing the duties of 'Old Ned' (the engine), with significant look and shrug of the shoulders said, 'Surely this must be an exaggeration of the labor of factory workers.' Mr. Haworth, who had come fresh from the wheel-handle in Bolton, and bearing indelible marks of the severity of his daily toil, exhibited the large 'segs'* upon his hands, at the same time pulling up his trousers he said, 'Look at my knee, my lord,' pointing to the hard substance produced by 'putting up the (jack) carriage.' This victory over the mind of the great statesman appeared complete and the illustration given had deeply impressed his lordship, and he heartily exclaimed, 'If what you have shown me and what you have stated be a fair

* Bunches of hardened flesh.

illustration of the labor of factory people, and the statements you have made be a fair detail of the hardships to which they are subject, I can no longer withhold my support from your cause, nor can I resist the belief that the children, as stated by Lord Ashley, have to walk or trot 25 to 30 miles a day. I will, however, speak with Lord Ashley on the points you have this day raised, and if your story be even half corroborated by his lordship, you may rely upon my support,'—a promise which that great man ever afterwards kept, and on all occasions when the subject was before parliament, he diligently performed his duty by speaking and voting for the 'poor factory child.'"

This, then, is the light work of the spinners (men), and doffers (children), a work that exercises the muscles to a remarkable degree. Soldiers (picked men) are expected to accomplish but from 18 to 20 miles a day on a continuous march. Children from 10 to 15 years of age walk in mills at mule-spinning from 15 to 20 miles a day. Under the present system of division of labor, work is becoming every year lighter and more monotonous. How light, monotonous work operates any one who doubts may determine by working eleven hours a day, at the very light task of making straight marks for that time with a pen on paper.

Within the last quarter of a century the perfection of machinery has caused very minute subdivision of labor, the workman's faculties have enjoyed less play, and therefore the monotony of his work demands the relief of less time, that his other faculties may not become stupefied and become paralyzed, and he be dragged down to the level of a mere repetitional apparatus. The only argument used against this reasoning is that lessened product, which is assumed, though wrongly, from lessened time, will lessen gains. Now if gains are to be considered everything and man nothing, one might think the argument forceful, but as long as the "image of God" is greater than the image of Mammon, as long as the worship of the true God will outlive that of the "golden calf," this argument ought to be of none effect. Yet doubtless it will be hard to persuade the users of men that the longer use will not generate the greater product. Many employers admit the progress and the possibilities of invention. The day in which we live justifies the admission. They have witnessed the results accomplished by steam and electricity, and while they fear there may not "come such

another," they are unwilling to risk an unbelief. Now the advocates of fewer hours and the perfection of machinery, both involving, as they think, a revolution towards better things, better than all else for the laborer, believe that more leisure will not debase the laborer, but will cure this greatest of evils, and will, in but a few years, infuse new elements of betterness through all society, and will bring into closer intimacy, and therefore into a better understanding, all classes of men, more leisure from work implying more strength to work, more thought to invent means to work, and both these helping to afford more time for cultivation by reading, by study, by travel, and a share in the general recreations by which men are elevated and refined and made better and purer. Made better and purer, and with better earnings from better machinery and better work, they believe he will demand more, and increase of demand will require increase of product, increase of product of every sort from every variety of trade and manufacture, and the demand will call out and realize the supply.

A hundred years ago the very rich only had watches, and them of an inferior sort. Now some of the manumitted slaves have them. Fifty years ago piano-fortes were dear-bought luxuries. Now you find them in the houses of some of the best-paid artisans. Then music was a rare recreation. Now the State is full of associations for its practice, and none but the works of the best masters will satisfy. Look at the scanty supply of books of a household of a half a century ago, and see to what supply that scantiness has now changed. Look at the few newspapers of that day and the hard work at the press that printed them, and the high comparative cost of their production. Look at the teeming millions now that the prolific press supplies—a hundred thousand daily now read where one was then. The supply increases the demand, and the demand stimulates invention to meet it.

To return: If as much cannot be produced now in ten hours as can be produced now in eleven hours, it does not prove that production will be permanently diminished, for though the capability of production does depend upon the perfection of the machinery and the skill and endurance of the operative, the amount of production depends upon entirely different causes. The demand determines this amount, the market determines the demand, the condition of the people determines the market,

and the rate of wage and earnings determines the condition of the people. Our country is the best market in the world. Our books, magazines and newspapers, our musical instruments, watches and sewing machines, and the thousand other necessities of our people prove this. Production depends upon wage because the laborer is a consumer as well as a producer. Make him the better consumer and he becomes the better producer. Production will not be diminished unless wages are reduced, and this leads us to the most important part of the question: Does a reduction of the working hours mean a reduction in wages?

The opponents to any reduction claim that it does, and so place themselves in favor of the high wages, against which very wages they protest, while at the same time they say the operative can barely live on his earnings,—only earning enough to live by working these eleven hours a day. This time, they say, ought not to be reduced, as such reduction would be reduction of wages and would be at the expense of the operative. But, they also say, we must reduce wages because we are making nothing. Now if reducing the time will reduce the wages, why not reduce wages by reducing time, and so save cost and wear and tear of machinery, and overstocking the market? That these wages are truly stated is corroborated by extracts from remonstrances presented by the selectmen of certain towns in the State against a ten-hour law, and against a six-months' schooling of factory children, presented in 1867, when wages were higher, for, say they, "as a class they are more dependent on their labor than the rest of the community, and the effect of such a law would be to impoverish those whom it is intended to befriend, and in many cases make them a charge on the towns for support."*

This would be deplorable if it were true, and it is true that wages could not be much further reduced without reducing them to that condition. Can they be so reduced? Manufacturers are practical men, and yet they have given no instances in the history of the world where wages have ever been permanently reduced. By wage we mean, not a certain amount of money, but the purchasing power of a day's work. Every fact is against

* These remonstrances were received from six different towns, all using the same phraseology and all in the same hand-writing, and four of them on paper of the same style.

such a supposition. Wages in the aggregate cannot be permanently reduced. Will they, then, remain where they are if the work-day is shortened?

Leaving this matter till another time we pass to the consideration of another objection, viz.: that the laborer's added hour will be given to dissipation. We are happy to record the fact that this idea, born of the dark ages and despotism, is rapidly passing away before the experience and advanced ideas of the times. It is contrary to all true democracy and is worthy only of darker ages. Opportunities given are opportunities improved. Freedom makes the negro more a man. In 1850, ten hours became the rule in all mechanical employments in this State, and though it is hard to trace a class that has been so directly affected as the mechanical class, by emigration and immigration, yet we can safely boast of them as men who, impelled by love of country and love of liberty, have done so much to make our nation free in fact as well as in name. Lessened time enlarged the area and the usefulness of the lyceums, and added very much to the numbers attending them, older lecturers assuring us that this increase was mainly derived from the working classes, so that patriotism and increase in knowledge each owes its growth and its glory to the movement for decreased time of labor. So, too, in England it is the glory of the ten-hour men of Lancashire, that, though sorely tried by actual suffering, their higher culture and their nobler aims, generated by lessened time, gave them a better comprehension of the question, and enabled them to prevent their government from positive intervention in favor of secession and against the government of the United States.

The twenty-one months' experience in Fall River also proves the utter fallacy of the charge of dissipation, and we confidently leave the question to the test of experiment and time.

Of the sanitary condition of our factories little need be said in this place, for however well ventilated and well heated, and however healthy the occupation of spinning or weaving, it certainly is not conducive to health to work eleven or more hours a day, especially with an average of nearly eighteen hours a week under artificial light, during six months of the year. This subject is so ably treated in the letter of a physician, on page 504 of

this Report, that we leave it and pass to the last objection, namely, that against legislation.

It is claimed that legislation on this subject is an interference between labor and capital. If legislation had never interfered in favor of capital, this claim would have some efficiency. Now the struggle for special charters when capital was weak and needed aid, the protective tariff of to-day, amounting as it does in some cases to prohibition of importation, grants of State aid to chartered wealth, upon the claim that the good of the people demanded such improvements as wealth unaided could not *profitably* give, all prove that legislation has interfered by special acts in favor of capital. And, indeed, the history of our legislation shows that this interference in its behalf has given bulk and shape to the statute books, while labor, the producer of all wealth, has had but a small share of governmental support. But legislation has interfered with capital and labor both, in the demand for public safety and the public good. Now public safety and *public good, the wealth* of the commonwealth, centred, as such wealth is, in the well-being of its common people, *demands that the State should interfere* by special act in favor of working men, working women, and working children, by enacting a ten-hour law, to be enforced by a system of efficient inspection. And having done this, she should next, following the example set by the United States, and some of the individual States, abridge the labor day for all manual laborers in her employ, either by contract or otherwise, so that the experiment may be tried at public expense, to prove whether a reduction of hours is or is not an increase of wages.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

We believe, in view of the subject-matters of the foregoing Report, that great good would be secured by legislative adoption of the following recommendations, and by enactments to carry them into practical operation, viz. :—

1. The establishment of 10 hours as the limit of a day's work in all manufacturing and mechanical or other establishments in the State, wherein men or women, or both, are employed.
2. The prohibition by law, with appropriate means of enforcement, that no child under 13 years of age shall be employed in

any such establishment, nor at that age, unless such child has received the elements of a common school education,—age and education to be matters of due certificate, provided for by law; and further, that all children between 13 and 15 years of age, so employed, shall not be employed more than 6 hours any one day, said hours to be between 6 o'clock in the forenoon and 6 o'clock in the afternoon, and shall attend school, vacations excepted, 3 hours on each and every day.

3. That a system of inspection be established, whose function it shall be to look after the enforcement of the laws regulating the hours of labor, and the employment and schooling of children, referred to in the second recommendation, and protection against accident to life or limb, by unguarded machinery or belting, in manufacturing or mechanical establishments.

4. The establishment of a system of half-time schools for children between 13 and 15 years of age employed in such establishments, and for other children whose avocations deprive them of the benefits of the ordinary full-time schools.

5. That the subject of tenement houses, and the power of enforcing all laws relating thereto, be committed to the State Board of Health.

6. The authorization by law, with methods of carrying it into effect, of a thorough and exhaustive system of statistics, to be gathered by the parties employed in taking the next State census, in 1875, covering the subjects of the wages, earnings and savings, time employed and lost, of all classes of working people, the number of persons (men, women, young persons and children) employed in the several industrial occupations in the Commonwealth, and of other matters connected with the subject of labor in the State.

7. That the Bureau of Labor be directed to present all its reports in print, and by the first day of February instead of the first day of March, as now provided.

HENRY K. OLIVER, *Chief.*

GEORGE E. MCNEILL, *Deputy.*

APPENDIX:

CONTAINING STATEMENTS AND EXPERIENCES OF WORKING-
MEN, AS EMBRACED IN BLANKS FORWARDED TO THE
BUREAU; THEORY AND PRACTICE OF THE
ENGLISH HALF-TIME SCHOOLS;
FRIENDLY SOCIETIES;

AND

INDEX TO REPORT AND APPENDIX.

STATEMENTS AND EXPERIENCES OF WORKING-MEN.

The statistical portion of the blanks received at this office from workmen has already been given. What we now present is the story of their privileges and disabilities, the general condition of their class, what they observe in daily life of the relations between laborer and capitalist, what they have experienced in efforts to improve their condition, through organization, and what their ideas are concerning existing grievances and the remedy therefor, as well as many other matters of interest too numerous to mention in detail in these preliminary remarks. A liberal number of employments are represented, and there is also considerable variety of incident. We commend to the reader, as worthy of careful perusal, what they have to say on these matters.

I.

A journeyman mechanic, working mainly in shipyards, gives his experience of strikes and trade conflicts as follows:—

In the spring of 1853, I was engaged in a strike for a reduction of hours from ten to eight, as well as for a rise in wages. I went into the strike because there seemed no other way of relieving my trade of its burdens. We had expostulated with our employers in vain. Some who would otherwise have been large-hearted enough to concede our claims, were unable to do so on account of their relations to the merchants who gave them their work, and also to the illiberal masters who opposed all concessions. The strike was confined to the ship-joiners of Boston employed in repairs—some two hundred in all. The larger part of our work was done in company with two strongly organized trades—the caulkers and ship-carpenters. By a series of struggles extending over a number of years, they had succeeded in reducing their hours of labor from ten to eight, and in establishing a uniform rate of wages at \$3 a day. We had no

organization, our hours of labor were ten, and our wages were \$1.75. Working on the same vessels with the journeymen carpenters, most of our work was closely connected and even interchangeable with theirs. When working directly upon a job with the carpenters, we have the privilege of the eight-hour day, but the instant they finished their part of a job, even though we continued on the same ship and on the same piece of work upon which we had worked but eight hours the day before, they insisted that our day should be increased to ten hours. Some explanation of the disparity in wages between the joiners and the carpenters is found in the fact that the condition of the former was slightly better in the matter of regular and permanent employment; at least this was made a pretext for reducing our wages to the lowest point. The state of affairs thus described caused constant collisions of a character unfavorable to the general good. The strike lasted but a few weeks, and, so far as immediate results were concerned, was a failure. A slight advance of wages was secured, and the general condition of things a little improved. Our employers lost some of their best men, who became disgusted with the humiliating condition of the trade, and left it.

In 1854 the culmination of commercial prosperity, incident upon the discovery of gold, brought a demand for labor throughout the shipyards of the country, and the joiners of Boston renewed their request of the previous year. Both points in dispute were conceded, and this trade was placed upon the same level as the associated callings. The leading employers have had the justice and good sense to allow the understanding thus reached to remain undisturbed.

Reflecting workmen are convinced that strikes form an essential part of the great struggle in which labor is engaged. While progressing, their objectionable features come to light and are made the most of by employers and the press in their interest, and so a dominant public opinion adverse to them has been formed. These theories of non-resistance are wholly indefensible. Capital has its Bunker Hills, and victory may be the precursor of defeat. It is true that in our case the employers yielded voluntarily at last, but it is evident that they would not have done so except from the pressure of moral influences growing out of the strike. They cared little for the heated talk of impulsive men while in open revolt, but different feelings came into play when they saw the whole calling helpless in defeat. Prudential motives also enforced the claims of justice, bringing as they did forcibly to mind the losses and vexations incident to interruptions of business. Following these influences

out into a wider sphere, we find that some employers became convinced that labor was justified in its demand for the eight-hour day, the principal opponent of the strike having been heard to say that were it not for the proprieties of his situation as an employer, he would head an eight-hour petition his employées were signing. The influences of that strike have gone still further. The joiners are preëminent among the trades for their ability and character, and the truths discussed and experience acquired at the time, have been projected into the present movement of labor with marked influence.

There are circumstances connected with the ship and house building trades which conspire to give those working at them a larger liberty in industrial relations than is enjoyed by their operative brethren in other employments, especially those working upon iron and leather. The labor of the open air is favorable to outspoken freedom. The highest physical vigor is secured, and this is closely connected with mental energy. This accounts for what is a noticeable fact, that the pioneer work in the reduction of hours has been almost entirely done by ship carpenters, caulkers and house plasterers. In our trade, unless business is unusually brisk, there is an interval between the completion of one contract and the beginning of another, long enough to occasion the discharge of most of the hands. This tendency is still further operative in connection with the division of trades, the workman who devotes himself to a specialty usually remaining at his work but a short time in one place. Under these circumstances the relations of the workmen to their employers are neutral; they neither love nor hate them. Long terms of labor beget intense personal antipathy to employers, as may be seen in the mill operative and the common sailor. With us there is no motive for that non-committalism and subserviency that come into play in any calling where there is a prospect of obtaining a permanent situation through their exercise. Other modifying influences are the large number of employers, their contrariety of interest, and their wide local diffusion, rendering it impossible for them to combine their forces against labor in any practicable or permanent form. Depression and dullness in trade contribute to lower the morale of labor somewhat, but not to the extent of serious or permanent injury. Strikes in the building trades in Massachusetts seldom result in discharge, because the workman generally has temper and spirit enough to leave, unless he belongs to an organization strong enough for mutual protection.

Concerning the relation of the hours of labor to wages, and

the abuses or injustice connected with the present wages system, he remarks as follows :—

Twenty-six years ago I performed nearly thirteen hours of actual labor per day the year through, using lamps morning and evening while at work during the three winter months. The trade was that of machine sash, blind and door making, and the location a town near Boston. The experience of a single year resulted in a rooted conviction that such excessive labor was a grievous and unnecessary requirement, and so I changed to another calling which gave me the ten-hour day. Labor excessively protracted defeats its own end—the maximum of production—by the exhaustion and sickness engendered, and by the drunkenness, dissipation and idleness of which it is the efficient cause. As applied to farming even, it is detrimental in making the employment repulsive, and driving the laborer from the farm to the city. The farm day limited to ten hours would bring with it compensations sufficient to more than make up for the temporary sacrifice.

The evils resulting from the excessive labor of factory men, women and children, especially the latter two classes, produce marked results of a detrimental nature, and yet the philanthropic and cultured in the community neglect their consideration, while organizing to prevent cruelty to animals. Our climatic exposures for the three summer months give to us a temperature corresponding to that of the cotton mill throughout the year. During this heated term the classes who profit by this ill-used interest of labor seek relaxation in every form. A proper public sentiment would long ago have prevented a continuance of the selfish usage which requires in the factory a working day of eleven hours and twenty minutes.

Excessive labor has also much to do with over-production and its disastrous reactions in those great staples toward which our industry sets. This is specially apparent in connection with the ship-building interest. The increase of our national tonnage has not harmonized with the growth of other interests in the country. Statistics show that there was a steady increase from 1850 to 1856, a steady and rapid decrease from 1856 to 1860, followed by two years of slight increase, and one of marked decadence, the latter succeeded by two years of rapid increase, themselves succeeded by five years of diminution. The production of 583,000 tons in 1855, was followed in 1859 by a production of only 156,000 tons; and while 175,000 tons were built in 1862, 514,000 were built in 1864. The large tonnage employed in the foreign trade at the beginning

of the war was the surplus production of the first five years of the preceding decade, and was driven there because the California, Australia and cotton freighting, for which it was built, did not call for such an enormous accession. A great stimulus had been given to ship-building, and the market was overstocked. Between 1856 and 1868 in the United Kingdom, there was a much more healthy and equitable adjustment of the conditions of production. The ruin which had really overtaken our shipping interest, before the war, was largely the result of excessive production, and was only rendered more complete by the ravages of the Alabama.

Causes operating for so long a period, and over such extensive areas, could hardly fail to manifest themselves in other directions of industrial effort. We find accordingly that the first action of the organized industry of the leading manufacture of the State, that of the boot and shoe makers, developed in this direction, and steps were taken by them, at the outset of their movement, to remedy the evils to which they were subjected by forced inaction for four months of the year.

Here is a fact in evidence on the broadest scale, that eight months of labor is ample to supply these products not only to the whole Commonwealth, but to answer the call of all who may purchase for an exterior market. I have the fullest confidence that the same state of things may with truth be affirmed of all the great industries of the country.

During the year of employment to which I have already alluded, the pay of first-class workmen was \$1.33 per day, and the number employed was 26. As spring opened, there was every indication of prosperity, and large contracts were made by our employer. The more thrifty and intelligent workmen, on consultation, came to the conclusion that they had better work by the piece. While negotiations to that effect were going on, an unmarried young man from a distant State came along and engaged most of the work that was to be had by the piece at the employer's price, and, with a younger brother as an apprentice, entered the shop. The pair labored with the utmost diligence, extending the excessive hours already named (13), by commencing at dawn and working at noon and at night, to the utmost limits of endurance. The elder brother made \$1.75 per day throughout the season, besides what he profited by his brother's labor. During the summer, still more work was jobbed out to other parties from abroad, under similar circumstances to those already named. The paltry advance in wage made by the party who took work by the job, in spite of marked ability and intense application, convinced me that the price asked

by the regular men was not excessive, and led me to an entire distrust of the usually received principles of political economy; yet this employer did no more than he was warranted in doing by the axiom, "Buy in the cheapest market."

I am now well aware that this problem cannot be fully discussed, without reference to high moral principles. Wages, being determined by the supposed needs of the laborer, seldom bear any just relation to the sum that would be received in case of an equitable division of profits. The falsity of this statement would probably be argued upon the ground that the margin of profit is now very narrow. But even if this is admitted, it remains true that the profit margin remains narrow because so many new producers are to be supported, the number of idlers being enormously augmented by the debased condition of labor. There have been periods of marked commercial prosperity, but in those times labor has certainly not shared justly in the profits earned in connection with capital; while during succeeding periods of depression, often long continued, wages surely go down, and the manufacturer points the demurring workman to the necessities of the situation as justifying scantiness of wage and forbidding any improvement. Often the truth would require a confession that these men ought not to be in business, living in an extravagant style upon the ill-paid labor of others, but ought instead to labor themselves, and bring their expenses within such an income as they might acquire without injury to their fellow-men. To illustrate in another form: note has nowhere been made of the great burden that rests upon the community by the maintenance of an army of commercial drummers, the least estimate of whose numbers which I have seen amounting to 50,000, supported at an expense of \$6 per day, while travelling, in addition to their salaries. Dealer and customer ought to meet without the expense of intervening parties, especially in a country replete with postal, express, railroad and telegraphic facilities. In some way, more or less direct, laborers have to provide for all idlers, nor is it possible under the wage system that it should be otherwise; for, inasmuch as it is not pretended, even in theory, that there shall be a just division of labor and its profits, almost superhuman efforts are put forth to reach that point in the social plane where—in the shape of exemption from manual toil, freedom from its lowering associations, and the reception of honor and profit,—the chief good appears to lie.

Oftentimes resident workmen are married men, with local and family duties which take much time and strength, and hence they are in no condition to compete with those outsiders who underbid

them, because free from similar burdens. Their slender means may be strained to the utmost to sustain the institutions of religion, while in the direction of the family, the rearing of children, etc., motives easily understood will constantly press upon them.

Let me give an instance from my own experience, showing some influences which are injuriously operative in their effects upon wages, and which have a bearing upon the theory of supply and demand. I was at work with an associate, in the hottest part of the year, in a yard shut in on every side but the south, engaged in repairs of the heaviest description. Ten hours was demanded of us, and we were paid \$1.75 per day. My residence required five miles of walking, going to and returning from work, while my companion travelled ten miles by rail and four by foot. We knew that our employer was getting at least \$2.50 and probably \$3 a day for our labor, and we asked an advance to \$2. He refused, and we told him we should leave at night, which we did, he persisting in his refusal. Privately he urged us to stay, but would make no concession as to wages. In his heart I suppose he was ready to concede that my partner and myself were worth even more than we asked, but he denied our request because our example would affect his other men. He was the owner of a steam-mill, and had succeeded in monopolizing enough of the business of the place to dictate wages. He has repeatedly been able to put wages down to \$1.50 (gold) by the importation of non-resident labor, thus reducing intelligent and industrious resident workmen to extreme straits.

But a still lower depth in the experience of labor is found when, having been reduced so low that sheer shame stops the direct progress downwards, work is jobbed out at the most ruinous rates to the prosperous, who, living in a well-stored house of their own, can and do resort to expedients to obtain employment which would disgrace the lower animals in a struggle for a bone.

I have seen men whose relations to labor were thus unnatural, deal in an entirely different way with tradesmen in the purchase of merchandise. Yet, while I have known dealers to sell for nearly \$30 what only cost them \$3, I never heard of anything like animosity being engendered by the transaction; the same parties will go the next day and buy at the same place any article they need which they can get as low as elsewhere.

I am impressed with a conviction that human labor is but partially influenced by the laws of supply and demand, and the working classes have ascertained by sad experience that their supposed equality with capital is a delusion. They see that there is no such freedom of upward range in wages as is claimed to exist. There is

always an abrupt and sharply-defined point limiting the advance in income, corresponding in its nature to the fixed height of the fluid-column in the exhausted receiver, while on the descending scale of wage the almost uniformly mournful history of labor proves the inadequacy of the competitive system to meet, in any fair estimate, the needs of the laborer or the demands of equity in his behalf.

In reaching the truth on these matters one needs to distrust the major part of the influences under which he has been educated.

Twenty-three years ago, in a debate in the British House of Lords upon the ten-hour factory bill, Earl Ellesmere used these words:—"It is a remarkable fact, everywhere and at all times the same, that the more hours men work in any staple branch of manufactures the less they receive in the form of wages." This was the first influential recognition of the subtle and anomalous influences which make the wage return for labor so generally an incubus rather than an inspiration. The candid recognition of this and kindred industrial truths by the influential elements of the American community has been hindered by a variety of influences.

While I do not deny that the abolition of entail, education, the ballot, legal freedom to think, speak, write and print, land in fee simple, and the fact that—

"Uncle Sam is rich enough to give us all a farm,"

have exerted very ameliorating effects upon labor, I must still claim that the evidently unequal distribution of the profits of labor proves the existing relations of capital to its partner to be very defective. In fifteen of the most important places in the Commonwealth, according to the estimate of May 1, 1869, the valuation reaches \$859,647,462, and the number of polls is 131,307; while in the whole State the valuation is \$1,341,069,403, with 337,043 as the number of polls. The outlines of this picture come into still bolder relief when we realize to what extent property is undervalued.

American society struggles to-day with the first throes of an awakening sensibility to the gross inadequacy of the industrial system into which our English ancestors blundered five hundred years ago. That it fails to meet the needs of the republican, and, to some extent, Christianized civilization of the present time is plain enough.

There is not the least reason, broadly considered, to suppose that the first award to labor in the shape of wages bears any just relation to production. The vast amounts hoarded in our cities have gone, by the terms of the original division of the results of toil, into

the hands of capital. If there was ever a State in the world pre-eminent for the laborious industry, frugality, intelligence and temperance of its working people, Massachusetts is that State. Labor has not had its fair share and then lost it through idleness, extravagance or debauchery, but the vicious principles of a corrupt industrial and financial system have robbed it, until the amazing exhibit which the facts and figures make has ceased to alarm the public conscience.

Here is a whole working population absorbed in material pursuits, or at least so engrossed for thirteen or fourteen hours each day as to turn to a superficial farce the attempted devotion of a brief interval of exhausted effort to spiritual, intellectual, ideal or social avocations. The absolute abandonment of the privacy of the home by our respectable working class in double occupancy of a house; the full development of the same poverty-stricken tendency in the abominations of our tenement-houses; the exodus from the State each year, as shown by the United States census, of five or six thousand of the best class of our working people; the withdrawal from our churches of laboring people utterly unable, by their utmost effort, to command an income sufficient for such expense; the prodigious stimulus to fraud and crime which results from the low average income of the people; the prostitution and misery of woman, forced out of her natural sphere by the general avoidance of marriage obligations on account of expense,—all these are confidently pointed to, by intelligent and thoughtful labor, as inevitably resulting from the appalling inequality in the distribution of wealth.

The rapid manner in which our public lands are being taken up, both for corporate and private purposes, shows that a few years will deprive us of this, the greatest easement hitherto of the laboring classes.

These considerations impart great interest to the discovery of the hidden influences, everywhere operative, which are contributing to such injurious results, and warrant the searching scrutiny into personal affairs which the Bureau has adopted in its circulars.

It is clear to me that the controlling forces in industrial matters at the present time are, for the most part, of a lowering character, and that the progress which society is making does not come to any very large extent from its industry, but from other sources, which are only effectual as they neutralize or qualify its evil tendencies.

It was useless for those worthy and considerate resident workmen, already alluded to, to attempt to compete with the outside

parties who were brought in contact with them. Some of the reasons why they could not I have given, and I have still further shown how, if they had attempted it, their only hope of an increase of income was based upon exertions which would have made that accession only temporary, while the evil entailed upon them by the increase of their hours would have been permanent; for all experience of workmen has shown that it is by just such efforts as this that excessive hours of labor are fastened upon the trades, while wages, step by step, and by a process which might well provoke the laughter of a fiend, grow small by degrees, and ruinously less, as one item after another of the common refinements and decencies of civilization are given up, until literal starvation wage is reached.

As it is commonly expressed, they give up needless expenses because they earn so little; while the truth is that they earn or produce enough to support whole classes in ease, if not in luxury. But it should be stated in this way: they work so long that they have not sufficient time to engage in those duties or pleasures which would require expense, and what little time they have is useless to them on account of fatigue and the lowering effect upon mind and body of excessive labor. The reduction in wage in this aspect of labor follows, partly, because, having few wants, they do not make vigorous effort to prevent it; partly because the employer, greedy for gain, knows, or assumes, that their scale of living is so low that they will bear it; and partly because, having acted in selfish disregard of the common good in increasing their hours of labor against the wish of their fellows, the workmen feel no confidence in each other, so that they cannot unitedly resist the depressing influences to which they are subjected.

I have been dealing for the most part with those facts and conditions which show that an increase of hours means a reduction of wage, with only an incidental recognition of the truth that a reduction of hours means an increase of wages.

I have shown the existence in the community of influences operating, on the most extensive scale, to depress the wage of labor below what it would be if there was really a free operation of the laws of supply and demand, as those terms are understood to apply to the purchase and sale of merchandise. I have also endeavored to show, what I have seen very clearly in my own personal experience, that society is not willing to accept the operation of those laws when they pass beyond certain limits understood to base themselves upon the necessities of the laborer, but that whenever, by an unusual concurrence of events, labor approximates to an equality with capital, in the upward tendency of wages, the employing interest as a

whole loses its self-possession, and inflicts with passionate severity certain penalties upon the luckless laborer who presumes, with *Oliver Twist*, to "ask for more."

I do not, however, wish to be understood as asserting that these are the only forces operative upon labor, in influencing the rates of wages. On the contrary, I fully admit that the gradual rise of wage, from the two pennies of the laborer of five hundred years ago to the two dollars of the present day, has been largely dependent upon influences which are connected quite definitely with the laws of supply and demand.

Returning again to the workshop and community, which I have taken as the type of the general effect of long hours and the wage system, I remark that the demand for increased wages came almost exclusively from those who attended religious service; their urgency evidently basing itself upon the necessity they were under of keeping a Sabbath suit of clothing for themselves and their children and meeting church expenses.

I well recollect the effect upon my mind of witnessing a number of workmen,—brought casually under the influence of a revival,—as they entered the vestry upon a week-day evening, clad in their green baize short jackets, commonly worn by our class at that time. They were not so insensible to the proprieties of the place as might be supposed. The fact was that they had no Sabbath suit; neither their week-day, evening, nor their Sabbath habits calling for any change of working clothes. How can a laboring community which does not finish its evening meal until half past seven or eight be expected to comply, in their exhausted condition, with the social decencies, a change of dress, etc., necessary to attend the prayer meeting or any evening gathering of the various organizations which bring the different classes of society together? The very thought is repulsive to all except to the most determined minds.

Those workmen who are able by evening liberation from labor to form a connection with our churches, masonic and reformatory organizations, make acquaintance with those who are above them in their style of living. They incidentally visit them at their homes, and, seeing articles of use, ornament and luxury, intelligent interest and strong desires are excited. Short-hour days thus raise wages by powerfully tending to create a class who, by improved minds and hopes, will earn more as a body, and who, pressed by the most powerful stimulus, the desire for social elevation, will form an invincible barrier—under any fair chance for the operation of the laws of supply and demand—to an extreme and permanent reduction of wage. Their short day's labor enables them to enter into

these steady relations, and the social ideas and habits thus engendered imperatively demand for their exercise the continuance of exemption from severe toil. This, being clearly seen and complied with, saves them from the terrible effects of overwork, with its sure results of lessened income, and throws the whole force of character and ability, in a direction in the expansion of wage, to the utmost limits which the system permits.

The whole range of expenses, dress, pew-rent, contributions, lectures, books, newspapers, excursions, etc., suggested by the foregoing remarks, cannot be less than ten per cent. of the average income of the respectable working class, and in some cases they reach nearly double that rate, making in their aggregate the one hundred dollars or more of surplus income, which Wendell Phillips truly characterizes, in his recently expressed views on the Coolie question, as decisive of the future condition of labor in this country.

It is mockery to tell us that we can all obtain positions. Aside from its intrinsic and evident impossibility, the unavailing fierceness of the struggle for office, positions as clerks, salesmen, teachers, etc., and the overcrowded ranks of all the professions, proves the contrary. Intelligent labor has already been driven to the point of desperation by the influx of classes having many resemblances to us in a common origin. It is incontrovertible that, even in this mild form, competition has put to the severest test the just institutions of religion and government to which we have invited them. When, in the presidential election of 1864, the Sixth Corps entered New York, and a cordon of our gunboats lay in the North and East Rivers, with their batteries shotted and turned upon the city, we had an impressive illustration of the legitimate and inevitable results of our present industrial system.

The only remedy lies in taking the straight and narrow road which leads to national as it does to individual immortality, in the embodiment in law and custom of those principles of elevated morality which recognize *an equitable distribution of labor and its reward* as essential to the continued existence of our republic.

This will insure the culture of the working classes, and by its effect upon other interests of society will gradually change them into producers, thus relieving labor from their support, transforming them, from their present position of hoarders and consumers of the wealth produced by others, into helpers of the common good.

II.

R., a spinner, of English birth, and now 37 years of age, has worked in a cotton mill since he was 8 years old. Takes one pa-

per, a weekly, which is read on Sunday, and has no recreations except on Sundays and holidays. Accidents often occur, especially to children, by their limbs getting caught in the machinery; this could be prevented by proper guards and covers. Was made bow-legged when very young from spinning hand-mules. The most common disease in the trade is consumption. Most spinners become old at 40; very few live to be 50. Intends his son shall have an outdoor occupation. Has been in strikes both for more pay and less hours. Has been discharged for taking part in strikes and has known others to be. The last one he was in was a failure; it held out eight weeks, and caused a loss in earnings of about a hundred dollars. Belongs to a trade union, which costs some \$6 a year; it has been of considerable advantage to the members. Has worked 12 hours a day, and with destructive effects; has observed that shortened time has improved wages and generally bettered the condition of the working people. Eight out of every ten working men he knows are in debt, caused by small pay, large families or extravagance in living. Has seen a great deal of distress even among industrious and temperate working-men. Sunday is only observed to a slight extent; the cause is overwork during week days. In one room in the mill there are 26 boys at work between the ages of 9 and 15. Some who are under 10 are called 10 through the connivance of their parents. Back boys walk about 10 miles a day, and spinners 25 or 30 miles. Boys are sometimes chastised for neglect of work, by the overseers, but seldom severely. Men in a cotton mill sometimes save enough money to buy a few rods of land and build a house, but has never known an instance where one has saved money enough from his labor to keep him, when disabled, the rest of his days without work.

It is a standing disgrace to liberty-loving Massachusetts that there are so few laws for the protection of factory operatives, who are entirely at the mercy of their often unscrupulous employers, who take advantage of their defenceless condition, through the aid of female and minor help, and thus debar them from any amelioration of their condition. Alas, that the legislature cannot grant a simple measure of justice to the down-trodden factory operative, because he is poor! After spending so much blood and treasure to annihilate slavery in the South, will our legislators still persevere in perpetuating it at the North? Are we to be the only class of working people that must toil more than ten hours a day? Do the necessities of the State require it? If not, it is a robbery of our health, our time, and the moral, social and religious privileges of our families, for which we shall hold them accountable before God.

III.

M., is a factory operative, twenty-six years old, and of Irish birth. Takes no newspaper and has no recreation. The company furnishes some reading matter without cost. At work, is all the time in a standing position. Never wants his own children to work in a factory. Most of the workmen around him with families are in debt. Factory children do not generally attend Sunday school, as it is their holiday. Employés that have the means cannot purchase shares in the mill, which has proved very profitable, its goods being always in steady demand. The girls and boys employed are between the ages of twelve and fifteen. Children must have good constitutions to work many years in a factory, as the air is unhealthy.

Likes the company he works for very much, but like all the cotton factories in Massachusetts, the hours are long and tedious. "Why can't they come down to the ten-hour system, under which they can live themselves, and their operatives be much benefited physically, if not financially? The employers are good to criticise employés about intemperance, but if we (the employés) could afford to keep champagne in our cellars and drink it at the expense of others, there would be no chance for statements about our intemperance. There is proof enough to convince any intelligent and unselfish man that ten hours should constitute a day's labor in a factory. I am in hopes the day is not far distant when the manufacturers will be made to see it. They will never consent to the reduction till compelled to do so. I hope and trust that, before another spring, fewer hours will constitute a day's work for the factory operatives of Massachusetts." Is glad to see the interest of the young looked after, for if things are allowed to go on as in past years, the factory children here will be as ignorant and degraded as in some parts of Europe. Is glad that general inquiry is being made into the condition of the working people.

IV.

K., cloth finisher in a cotton mill. Half the factory people are in debt, which is due to low wages and rum. Too many spend the Sabbath in drinking or strolling about the streets or fields after the confinement of the week; they believe that Sunday will soon be a day for the rich only, as they have got nearly all else here below. No places for instruction or innocent recreation are within convenient reach. The girls and boys employed in the factories are few of them under ten years of age; but all work the regular time of 67½ hours a week, with occasional night work from seven to nine

o'clock in addition. Not over half the children get their regular schooling, the parents for selfish reasons conniving at the violation of law. Two-thirds of the help are women and minors. The boarding-houses have about them few comforts, and give no chance for girls to learn household duties, for which, indeed, there is little inclination after a hard day's work. A glass or two of liquor will buy a majority of the votes of factory operatives at any time. They don't read, except now and then a daily newspaper. Two-thirds of the factory foreigners here don't vote because they cannot read and write.

V.

W., a weaver, now twenty-nine years old, commenced factory work in England when twelve years of age. Takes one weekly newspaper, which he is too tired to read, except on Sunday. Has no chance for recreation, all his time out of work hours being taken up with meals, chores and sleep. There are a thousand persons employed in the mill where he works, and a hundred and eighty in the same room, which is heated by steam, and from which in the winter all air is excluded that can be. Work requires a deal of stooping, and those who have been at weaving from childhood have very contracted chests. Diseases of the chest and lungs are quite common in the trade. Has been engaged in one strike. It was for a reduction of time to ten hours, and lasted four weeks. The strike was successful, and the mill ran two years upon the ten-hour system, with satisfactory results. During the strike had to borrow money on which to support his family. It was not a society strike. Has worked thirteen and a half hours a day; it was in Webster, in 1859. So far as experience goes, an advance in wages has always followed a reduction in hours. The children in the weaving-room work as long as the adults do, and their employment compels them to walk from six to ten miles; the children in the spinning room walk from fifteen to twenty miles a day. The effect of factory work upon the health and morals of children and young people is bad. Is more interested than in anything else in securing a reduction of factory working hours to ten. As regards the effect of such reduction upon intemperance, he refers to what followed the ten-hour system in England, and thinks it safe to conclude we should witness similar results here. After the adoption of the system there it was surprising to notice how drunkenness diminished, and to see mechanics' institutes, reading-rooms, libraries, debating societies and evening schools spring up; thus showing that sobriety and intelligence took the place of drunkenness and ignorance. Any one

can see this by comparing the temperance movement and its strength to-day in England, with the same of 1850. If we get a reduction in the hours of labor, we shall be greatly benefited in health, and accomplish in a year as much, and more, than we now do working eleven hours. Another grievance we suffer from is, the driving system. We have an overseer and two sub-overseers. The duty of an overseer is to find fault, and send his subs to the weavers to do the driving. For an eight-loom weaver, forty cuts are supposed to be a week's work. If any less is done, there is a black mark against one's name, and Monday morning the sub comes and tells you that you must weave that quantity or leave. If an extra smart hand should accomplish a little over forty cuts, the standard for the week would be raised to forty-two or forty-four, and we are told to weave that quantity or be discharged. This is the most tyrannical system that it has ever been his lot to witness. Under ten-hours, he would be in better health, lose less time and be able to apply himself to work with greater energy, and secure a general improvement in moral, social and physical condition. Has not yet acquired a competence—so does not want his name to appear.

VI.

W., operative in a cotton mill. Usually rises at 5 A. M., and retires at 9 P. M. His father was a factory operative; worked with him in the mill until 1860; then worked on boots until 1865; then spent a year and a half in the mill; after that worked in a shoe shop, until June, 1870; then he came back to the mill. As a shoemaker, was a member of a trade union; went into a strike about teaching new hands, and was out of work two weeks. Results of strike, loss of time to employes, a heavy loss to the employer, and the breaking up of the lodge. Wages of men in the factory run from \$1.50 to \$2.50; the one where he is employs one child under 15 years, and that one works $67\frac{1}{2}$ hours a week. Factory labor is crushed under the heels of the manufacturer by the number of working hours; God speed the day when factory operatives shall have the ten or eight hour system.

VII.

H. holds a position in the weaving room of a corporation employing fourteen hundred persons. Has a family of three. Lives close to place of work. Takes three newspapers, and has an hour a day for reading them. Works in room with a hundred others. It is heated by steam, lighted by gas, and ventilated at the windows. A good many accidents occur from catching hands or

clothes in the machinery, which might be avoided by care and attention to work. In cases of injury to any considerable extent, full pay is allowed by the company, and other expenses are sometimes paid. Has worked at the business 22 years; beginning as an under hand, and has no desire that son shall follow the same trade. The improvements in machinery have diminished somewhat the number of persons employed, but have not lessened the demand for skilled labor, or made work any more monotonous than before. Changes in fashion have promoted production; but made the working classes more unsteady, extravagant and improvident. Has never been in a strike or trade union. From 1843 to 1850, and later, worked thirteen hours a day; since the change, wages have been higher. The effects of the long-time system were seen in general debility, and a disinclination for mental improvement. With the increased production of improved machinery, more time ought to be obtained for amusement, recreation and study; and while operatives, as a general rule, do not make one-tenth the improvement possible now, still there is progress in that direction, and that progress would be much greater in a few years by still further reduction in time, say to ten hours. Production would not fall off in the ratio of the reduction in time, and less pay would not necessarily follow. In the corporation where he works, shares are not owned by employes, but the articles manufactured are sold to operatives at reduced rates. No children under ten years are employed, and for those over ten, and below fifteen, the number of hours worked per week is only sixty. Factory work arrests the physical development of children. With young women, it begets a distaste for household employment, and hard work, together with gross neglect of health, renders them wholly unfit to become healthy mothers. Perhaps a quarter of the factory people are in debt; intemperance is common, and there are many cases of sickness. A good proportion attend church. Among the under hands, the cost of living and price of labor have kept even pace for the last ten years; but among those holding positions, wages have not been advanced with the increase in cost of living.

VIII.

M., 55 years of age, covers rollers in a woollen mill. Half the operatives of the place are in debt; cause, intemperance. The foreign element attends church much more regularly, in proportion, than the native. The reasons of non-attendance are these: many are unable to dress as well as professed Christians; some don't want to go, and many stay away because the sittings are not free.

There are some private evening schools in the neighborhood. The corporation sells none of its goods at the wholesale price, even to operatives; no shares are owned by the employés. About seventy-five children under fifteen years of age are employed, and some under ten years; all work eleven hours a day. The company could answer questions as to schooling, if disposed; there is certainly a sad neglect in the matter; in one room where there are twenty-five or thirty employed, only three have been to school the past year. Under present regulations the effect of factory labor upon children is very bad.

IX.

G., an iron moulder in a sewing machine establishment, has a family of nine. Has never been on a strike; always been treated well. Doesn't belong to a trade union, and thinks connection with them tends to intemperance, in a majority of cases. Previous to 1860, worked eleven hours a day on an average. Receives more pay under less hours, and has been benefited by the reduction in every respect; honestly and sincerely believes still further reduction would be beneficial. Three-fourths of the working people are in debt; reasons, wages not in proportion to cost of living, and the enormous indirect tax on everything they eat, drink and wear. Has known cases of actual want and distress, from poor health, accidents, etc. In the establishment five children are employed; in a neighboring cotton mill a large number, some of them not more than eight years old, and thinks they do not have the legal schooling. Has heard of the children being chastised by overseers. Knows no one who at day wages has earned a self-supporting competence, enough upon which to retire.

X.

H. is a machinist, employed by a cotton manufacturing corporation. Takes four newspapers and two magazines, and finds time to read them. Amusements are all well patronized by the operatives, and lately a library has been opened for their use. Lectures and dancing are popular. Served three years of apprenticeship, and would rather encourage a son to enter the same trade, after being well educated, if he was disposed to do so. New and improved tools and machinery have been introduced, the effect of which has been to diminish the number of employés 20 per cent. Skilled labor is of as much value as formerly, but it is easier to do the work now than it was. Sometimes the work is real exercise to the mind. Has never been on a strike, or belonged to a union.

Five per cent. of his acquaintances are in debt; main fault, rum. In the mills many children are employed, some being under the legal age. Children work the same number of hours as the older help; two or three times a week there will be evening work, and the young help come in just the same as the rest.

XI.

W., a machinist, 63 years old, with a family of three, works 60 hours a week. He owns a home about 40 rods from his place of work, and is able to pay for everything purchased at once, and asks no credit. He works for a corporation, and has access to a library furnished by it and managed by the employés; takes three newspapers, and averages three hours a day given to reading. Has never been engaged in a strike and never shall be; believes those matters can be settled at the ballot-box. Between 1834 and 1843 worked 13 hours a day. The reduction has saved him a good deal of money, because he has been able to devote more time to the cultivation of his garden than before. *If eight hours could be established all the world would be the better for it.* Three out of five working people are in debt; causes, fashion and intemperance. About one in ten are habitual attendants upon public worship, each one spending the day as suits himself. He regards the labor reform movement as one which will promote human happiness, lessen human misery, and strengthen the bonds of human brotherhood—one that is founded in eternal righteousness, and that calls into play the noblest sentiments of one's nature. Its career must, in the nature of things, be one of progress, and its crown one of bloodless and tearless victory. Its mission is peace, not conflict.

XII.

M., a machinist, takes half a dozen papers, but would like to have more. Works in a room with 30 others; often does work by the job instead of by the hour. Learned his trade by piecemeal in different shops. Does not belong to a trade union, but was engaged in one strike based upon a request for shorter time, a reduction from eleven hours to ten, as was the rule of the trade in all other places. It was in 1863. A petition was drawn up and circulated in all the shops of all the trades, asking that the hours of labor might be reduced to the common standard, ten hours. I signed it, but stated at the time that I should not strike, as I had no faith in its helping us; but the petition would open a way for us to be heard, and perhaps the request would be granted. At our place the answer of the employer, short, sharp and decisive, was, "If any

of my hands are dissatisfied with my regulations, I will settle with them." Though fully understanding what a strike meant, *I determined that if a respectful, and, as I understood it, a reasonable request could not be answered courteously, I should strike.* I stated that I was dissatisfied and "turned out." Elsewhere in the place the movement was a fizzle; here all but two or three settled up, and it was two or three months before the shop was filled up, and then at a loss to the proprietor of several hundred dollars. I was only out of employment five days, for I went to another place, told my story, and was given a situation where I worked ten hours and got 25 cents a day more. Three months later my old employer, after having filled up his shop in a good measure, approached me with a view to return. Having a house and family there, and he offering me 21 cents an hour, with privilege of working as many or as few hours as I pleased, I went back. Three or four others who came out at the same time went back in the same way. As a strike it was a failure, for the eleven hour system is still in vogue; as individuals, some of us were successful. Not more than three or four out of the sixty employed in this shop can show as favorable an exhibit as mine; yet these men are better paid than in other trades in town. The machinist who gets average pay, if his health is good, can, if his family is never larger than two or three children, with the strictest economy and steady work, save a little balance every year; but if he has double that number of children there is nothing to save him from being a slave,—barely able to procure the necessaries of life, and with a wife overworked because utterly unable to procure help. I have known men in ten, fifteen or twenty years to save enough to buy a farm, or go into some small business; but I think there are very few men with a family who save more than \$200 a year, and those who do that, or anywhere near it, are a very small per cent. of the whole. Ten per cent. of the working people here are in debt, due, I think, to sickness, extravagance or dishonesty. Some have had to receive help; in one case over a hundred dollars was raised. More than half attend church with greater or less regularity. The principal social recreations are found in the sewing-circles and Good Templar lodge. The popular recreations are foot and base ball, and fishing. As an apprentice from 1850 to 1853, worked twelve and a half hours and found it very wearing. Am not sure whether the eight hour system would perceptibly diminish production or not.

XIII.

M., a machinist, 29 years old. Lives two and a quarter miles

from place of work; time consumed in going and coming, one hour and twenty minutes; cost, six and a quarter cents per day in good weather, in bad weather sixteen cents a day (ferry or horse cars). Takes one daily and one weekly newspaper; has time to read them, but feels almost too tired to do so. Works in shop with fifteen others. Accidents, which frequently occur in the trade from limbs being caught in belts and gearing, might be prevented in part by suitable coverings, employers being compelled to use them by State authority. In the trade, men become round-shouldered and prematurely old. Trade learned by working in different shops, and very seldom by regular indenture. It is the general practice for employers to discharge boys when work is slack, and for boys to leave for some place where they can learn more or earn more pay. A set of tools costs from \$20 to \$100. The work brings all the education one has into use; never saw a mechanic that knew too much. Belongs to a trade union; cost, \$6 per year. It has not reduced hours, but has increased wages and usefulness, and been an education to a certain extent. In 1862 worked eleven and a quarter hours; men in the trade wore out faster then than now. It would be a great benefit to have a still further reduction. About half the working people are in debt; cause, low wages. Have known them in such cases to be supported by friends, and in 1868 for four months by the city. The cost of living has been in about the same ratio with wages for the last ten years. About thirty-five per cent. of the working people attend church, and most of their children go to Sunday school. Most of them spend Sunday at home in rest. For amusements and recreations they have lectures, concerts and theatricals; a public library and Y. M. C. A. room are accessible. The place has a coöperative store, which has been running since December, 1864. Has never found a man able to lay up enough by day wages so that he could live without work on the interest of the amount. Has been in one strike, which was entirely voluntary, and which cost a discharge and loss of fifteen days' time, or \$20 in money. It was in Lowell, in 1867, and was on account of regulations being posted in the shop requiring the men to be at their daily stands, with their necessary garments on ready for work at the usual time, and not to take them off until after the time for closing work; also, that the doors should be locked during working hours; and that the men should not be called out during that time. Not having been brought up under such a system of slavery, I took my things and went out, followed in a few hours by the rest of the men. Thinking perhaps that it might be of some benefit to the rest, I remained with them on the strike. They went back to work

with the understanding that the new rules should not apply except in regard to the doors being locked. A few days after I went for my pay and it was politely handed me without the trouble of asking for it.

XIV.

J., a machinist, 43 years old, has a family of five, and lives in a house of his own, containing eight rooms, situated about eight minutes' walk from place of work. The place was paid for out of the savings of his daily wages. Takes newspapers, and buys provisions and house supplies in quantity or by the season. The business still demands skilled labor, but the growing expense for tools makes it one more and more difficult in which to become an employer. The most prevalent disease in the trade is consumption, caused by the inhalation of iron dust. In cases of sickness and distress, subscriptions are taken in the shop to help the man while he is out of work. Generally the working people of the place attend church. The reason why a great many do not, is because of the expense. Working people do not like to be put in the back seats because they have not got the means to pay one or two hundred dollars for a pew. They are as sensitive as persons who have become rich by dishonesty, by rise in real estate, or by speculation. In 1848, '49, and '50 worked thirteen hours a day. This was in Lowell, and the shop was low and ill-ventilated. Found it was making serious inroads upon health, causing colds, sore throat and fever. Concluded, if he would live, must change his place, and so went elsewhere, found work in a better shop, and for only eleven hours. This was soon after reduced to ten, upon a petition from the help, and without any strike.

Reduced hours of labor have a great tendency to improve one, morally, mentally and physically. A person will, under continual long hours, either succumb from want of physical power, or become a mere brute, not having time to think, visit or do anything that would tend to personal improvement. Under such circumstances, it is nothing but work and sleep, if there is a family to support. In regard to further reduction of hours, it would be well to have more holidays, so that laboring people could escape, by a change of air and scenery, the continual monotony of toil. This could be done by cheap excursions and cheaper accommodation. A reduction in the hours of labor, from ten to eight, in most cases of machine making, would result in a corresponding reduction in the amount of product, consequently a corresponding loss to the consumer or producer, and if the reduction should become general in

all branches of business, there would of course be a corresponding loss, unless by improvements in machinery the same amount could be produced in eight hours that is now done in ten; but improvements in machinery generally create new wants, just as the sewing machine has actually increased domestic labor, by the amount of fancy stitching done. People are not independent enough; they want to keep up appearances with the rich, to such an extent that they are slaves to fashion. Fashion is a hard thing to contend with, so that it is difficult to say what effect further reduction would have, in case of increased improvement in machinery.

XV.

R., machinist, 32 years old. The tools of a journeyman machinist cost from nothing to \$200, as the case may be. Has never been in a strike; belonged to a union once, but derived no special advantage from it. Is paid the first of every month. Worked more than ten hours a day always, before 1866; was tired and worn all the time, and often sick. The change was beneficial, and don't see why further reduction would not be. The most convenient place for instruction or recreation is a small and select club of persons for debating. The machinists and blacksmiths, and carpenters and joiners of the place tried coöperation but did not succeed. Hundreds and thousands of children between 10 and 15 are employed in the city. Thinks a worsted braid manufacturer has at least twenty-five children employed, who are less than 10 years old. The prevalent hours in the factories are eleven a day, and the hands often work at night besides. Thinks the schooling law is not heeded; the operatives are quite generally ignorant, their employers caring little for them, except so far as work is concerned.

XVI.

B., a machinist, 47 years of age, has a family of five. Has been engaged in one strike, which was for less hours. We were working eleven hours a day when others in the trade were working but ten. We made the reasonable request that one hour might be taken off. It was refused. This was October 1, 1863. After six days of rest, went away and got more pay for less hours. Afterwards made an arrangement to come back, and work by the hour; did this because of place and family. The loss of the boss by the strike must have been great, as several of his best men left him when help was not very plenty. Machinists are not anxious to come to a place where they work eleven hours; or if they do, they don't stay very long; they can generally do better where the ten

hour custom prevails. Ten hours is long enough for any man to work. Has not known his employer to pay anything to his men who were injured while at work. Know of two cases of accident; one man was injured in the shoulder, and another in the hand; in each case the men were laid up three or four weeks. Has never heard of a man working for wages able to retire upon a "competence" so acquired. Thinks it impossible for a man with family to earn enough in twenty-five years to live without work. A three years' apprenticeship gives \$5 a week the first, \$6.50 the second, and \$7.50 the third. The boys work eleven hours a day as apprentices here. Works sixty-three hours a week himself.

XVII.

A., a machinist, 55 years old, has a family of five, and works 66 hours a week. Has a house with seven rooms three-quarters of a mile from work; an hour per day is consumed in coming and going. Takes a newspaper, but has no time after work for recreation. Rises the year through at half past four o'clock in the morning. Used to work fourteen hours a day. Three-fourths of working-people of acquaintance are in debt. Most attend church. No opportunities for instruction or recreation are within convenient distance of home. Factory life, as he sees it, is bad in its effects. In place where he works, an employé can buy shares, and attain partnership if able to pay the money down.

XVIII.

D., contractor in a pistol factory, has a family of three persons. In the place, since 1854, new branches of business have been established as follows: sash and blinds, gold chains, skates, paper collars, metallic cartridges, papier-maché, watches, railroad cars, vegetable ivory buttons, mineral paints, envelopes, paper boxes, games, engraving and lithographing, cancelling stamps, reeds, faucets, baby carriages, plated ware, spectacles, thimbles, enamelled cardboard, webbing, carpet slippers, pistols, shot-guns, portable gas machines, drain and sewer pipe, brown ware and flower-pots, stove blacking, soda fountains and apparatus, waste cleaning and paper-ruling machines; lead pipe making and rubber manufacture have stopped. About a fourth part of the working people around him are in debt, owing to carrying pass-books and trying to make a show in the world; the deposits in savings banks are immense. A good many go to church occasionally, but habitual attendance is not general among the mechanics. The most convenient opportunity for instruction is a free drawing school. At the factory they have no

night work ; six boys are employed between ten and fifteen, but none under ten. Constant changes are going on in the help ; think the force changes every three years. Never knew a man at work by the day to leave the shop with enough to support him for six months.

XIX.

C. makes gun barrels in government employ, and is a machinist. Works only eight hours a day and is paid by the piece. From 1847 to 1856 worked from five A. M. to seven P. M., with half an hour for breakfast and three-quarters of an hour for dinner ; now works from seven A. M. to four P. M., with an hour for dinner. Wife and children work only at home. Since the change was made in government employ, earnings have remained the same, though paid by the piece, because of a closer attention to work, and an ability to do as much as under the ten-hour system. With eight hours would be able to work until sixty years old ; believes eight hours the right thing. Has observed that eight-hour workmen lose little time, spend their evenings at home, and give themselves to improving their minds by reading and study. Very few spend their time in the grog-shop, and more money is made in the same number of years than before. The eight-hour workmen are more like men now, show fewer traces of exhaustion, are more disposed to investigate and think for themselves, and less disposed to do as told by others than formerly. Eight-hour workmen attend evening lectures and concerts, where men employed a longer number of hours prefer lighter amusements. The latter class seem too tired to enjoy what demands close mental attention or labor. Very few eight-hour workmen are in debt, while a third of the rest are so, owing to low wages, sickness, and in some cases mismanagement. The cost of living for the last ten years has increased more rapidly than the advance in wages as a rule. Thinks there is quite a general attendance upon church worship ; those who do not go stay at home reading, because they cannot afford to pay from \$30 to \$70 for a family pew per year, with the extra expense required in dress, etc.

XX.

M., paper-box maker, German, has a family of nine. Works fifty-nine hours a week ; children help at work. Has a house with six rooms and some land. The house is ten minutes' walk from place of work. Works with fifteen others in room ; the building an excellent one in every way. Two accidents have occurred, a hand lost by gearing and an arm by belting of machinery. Division of

labor caused by machinery has made his work easier than before. Belongs to no society and has had no trouble with employers. In Germany, worked fourteen hours a day. Has known working men to suffer from actual want in times of general dullness and depression. The place where he lives well supplied with facilities for culture and recreation.

XXI.

K., a house carpenter. Rises at four o'clock in the morning and retires at nine o'clock; carries dinner to his work, three miles away, and spends an hour and a half a day in going and coming. Owns a house of seven rooms. Has but little time left for reading at night and is generally very tired, but takes one daily and two weekly newspapers. His employer hires ninety persons, male and female, and sometimes continues the pay or otherwise helps those who are sick. Employment healthy and improving to the mind. First cost of tools, \$175 to \$200. Has never been engaged in a strike or belonged to a trade union. Work exercises the higher faculties of the mind. Is usually too much exhausted at night to go out for any recreation or amusement. Gets in supplies for the season. Did not lose a day from work last year.

The working classes are not habitual in their church attendance; the high rate of the pews virtually forbids it. Their Sundays are usually spent in reading in order to improve their minds. The future condition of the laboring class depends upon their intelligence and refinement; without these they will still remain the mere machines of selfish men. With a republican form of government the education of the laboring class should always be provided for. Having intelligence, this would create self-respect, and self-respect would command the respect of their fellow-men.

In 1838 to 1847 I worked from 13 to 14 hours per day; the effect was an exhausted mind and body, while the influence of *less* hours has improved the condition of the laboring class morally, mentally and physically; and I think that a still *further* deduction in the hours of labor would produce similar beneficial results.

XXII.

D., a carpenter, 37 years of age, has five in family and lives in three rooms. Works 60 hours in summer and 54 in winter. Lives 7 minutes' walk from place of work. Takes a weekly and a daily newspaper, but often does not have time to read them without neglecting other duties. Recreation and amusement are strangers to him. Never expects to have a house earned by day's wage. Av-

erage working life in the trade about 40 years. Tools valued at \$150 to \$250 are required. Does not desire his son to follow the same business. Has never been in a strike, but is a member of a union and pays \$6 a year for dues. Works in a general sawing and planing mill; accidents are quite numerous from saws, gearing and machinery. In serious cases employers contribute something to support the disabled. Pulmonary diseases are frequent in shops where machinery is used, caused by inhaling the dust of walnut and other woods. With the machinery used, even in establishments that are not first-class, four men can accomplish in a week what would demand twelve men without machinery. Large capital is required to carry on business. The introduction of machinery makes a reduction in the hours of labor imperative. It makes work scarce and lowers the price of labor. Now large numbers are thrown out of employment, often in the winter months, and this brings want, suffering and crime; I speak from actual experience. If I were thrown out of employment now, for several months, I should have to resort to dishonorable means in order to support my family. Yet I work every legal day in the year and have as good wages as any, yet have to spend as I go along what I earn, and that, too, without living very comfortably, or having what large classes in the community would consider indispensable. The reduction of the hours of labor to eight is also necessary to give the laboring man a chance to live away from the crowded city. In my judgment, the eight-hour system would be the best remedy that could be devised. Then we should no longer see tenement houses crowded with human beings to such an extent as to make it impossible for them to live in peace with each other, or prevent their health from being impaired to an alarming extent. All this could be avoided by every man having a small house of his own. I think the State ought to make some advances toward building houses suited to the wants of the laboring class, and to encourage them in owning the houses they live in. By using some of the money, which is given to railroads and other monopolies, in putting up such houses, the occupants paying for them in rent, this whole class would be greatly benefited and encouraged, and an act of justice would be done, and coming generations would revere the memory of such wise and thoughtful legislators.

XXIII.

R., a house carpenter, 34 years of age, lives in a tenement of five rooms; has a family of three; the children busy themselves by going half a mile for water for the house. When he has regular

pay buys supplies by the season or quantity ; when otherwise, has a store account and suffers the consequences. Takes one daily and two weekly newspapers ; is so tired after his work that he cannot remember what he reads any length of time. Lost seven days last year, four by sickness and three by recreation ; cannot take much time for recreation, as he must work right along in order to pay bills. The majority after their work seek something stimulating—something “to make them feel good” ; those not exhausted seek information and culture. Works with from six to twenty or thirty others. Broken bones, cuts, bruises, etc., are the common accidents of the trade, and carpenters are also liable to receive bad colds from working on a roof one day and on the next in a close, heated room, or in a damp cellar or basement. Often accidents occur from the giving way of staging put up in a hurry on contract ; these might be prevented by the employer laying out a few cents more on the iron works of the brackets used. Pay never goes on after an accident ; but if we break anything while at work this is taken from our wages. Served four years’ apprenticeship ; those who understand the theory and principle of the trade are not as much afraid as others to stand for their rights. Tools to commence work with cost about \$150. Improved machinery has rendered skilled labor of more value in some respects. When the hard and rough work is done cheaper by machinery, folks can afford to pay more for nice and comfortable things. But where there are so many at work that have never served an apprenticeship it becomes harder for those that have, as they must do their own work and show others how to do theirs. The boss charges about the same for all. When he lets out ten men by the day he calculates to have two good workmen at \$3.25, and eight that don’t know the plan of a house from hen tracks ; these are paid \$2.25, and the boss charges \$3.50 for each of the ten men. If a man does know anything he has to use it to the advantage of his employers or lose his job, or have his reputation injured by the employer when he leaves. Has never been in more than one strike. When a cabinet-maker, in 1864, an increase of wages was demanded on account of the higher cost of living, tools, etc. It lasted only one day and the advance was given. The employer saw that the concession would work more to his advantage than a refusal would. Has been connected with trade unions, but is not now ; there are none in the place. It would be better if there were some. About two-thirds of the working people are more or less in debt. Of course there are some that never mean to pay. Many things conspire to the disadvantage of the working-man. If he has a large family and is

firmly located in a place he is apt to have more than his share of the hardest work, because the employer thinks the man is, under the circumstances, obliged to put up with it. The man, being honest, will try to do his utmost, working from sixty to seventy-five hours a week; so he gets overdone, is laid up sick, and his expenses going on all the while, he soon finds himself in debt. Once in debt, how is he to get out when wages are regulated by the cost of living? Indeed, for the past ten years, the cost of living has increased faster than wages have risen. One may well be afraid to get in debt under the present state of things, for a person would have to stop living if he intended to get out of it at all. Most are inclined to attend worship, but many feel too tired to fix up for it. Then we have little things to do at home Sundays to make it comfortable and happy; things that we can't do on other days. If we had two hours more a day from work, then we could afford to keep the Sabbath holy. Some are fortunate enough to remain permanently in the employ of good men,—men who treat them as equals, and not as slaves,—and are thus able to save something. The treatment and the savings both help to make them more industrious and faithful than their fellows.

In 1861 I worked in Melbourne, Australia, with a man from New York, who said he got as much and considerably better work out of six men in six months, when they worked eight hours a day, as he did when they worked eleven.

In regard to the eight-hour system, I, for one, think it would be a great benefit to the working class and their families, without any material injury to their employers or to the various trades. By working over-hours daily, a man gets exhausted and work becomes a burden to him. He has no time for recreation, and cannot make home happy by being cheerful; for how can he when he is unhappy and discontented himself, with nothing to look forward to but hard work and a bare living? By working eight hours a day he gets time for study, attending lectures with his family, &c. I also think it would advance the cause of temperance more than a prohibitory law. What we want is more freedom and equality among working-men and capitalists. Then, a man will feel more pleased with himself, and spread an influence around him which will promote self-respect, and keep many away from the rum-shop and its miseries.

XXIV.

D., a house joiner, 38 years old. Lost only twelve and a half days last year. Has a family of six; hires a tenement two miles from work, and carries his dinner from home; spends an hour a

day in travel; takes one daily and one weekly newspaper. When accidents or sickness occur in the trade, employers seldom contribute to the relief of their workmen or families. An outfit of tools costs from \$150 to \$200; yearly outlay for replacing those worn or broken, from \$25 to \$50. Changes in fashion have given the trade a great amount of labor. Has never been in a strike, and has often been aided by employer in getting work. Belongs to a trades-union; cost, \$6 a year; result, social benefit. Works ten hours a day now; prior to 1854 worked from thirteen to fifteen. Further reduction would most certainly be beneficial. A great many in the trade are in debt; causes, inability to get work for long periods of time, and, with some, an injudicious use of their earnings. Most of them do not attend church, neither do their children go to Sunday school; causes, inability to dress themselves and their children as others, negligence, etc. The time is spent in various ways, roaming the streets, fishing, pitching cents, etc. The rule as to apprentices is to get as much out of them and in turn teach as little as possible.

XXV.

O., a cigar maker; German; takes two papers. Works in a room with six others; work requires sameness of position, but is not specially subject to disease. Knows a man sixty-five years old in the trade. A three-years' apprenticeship is required, but the outlay for tools is very small; boys and girls from 10 to 15 are not employed; don't desire his sons to follow the same trade. Has been in one strike for increase of wages, which resulted in favor of the men, and lasted but a few hours. In his trade no man is allowed to strike on his own account; if not satisfied with the price paid he gives the executive committee a sample of the work, and this committee decides whether the price is sufficient or not. Belongs to a cigar makers' union, and pays, in annual dues, \$4.20. There are no regulations as to hours of labor; has himself never worked more than ten or eleven hours. Fifty cents a week is paid by each member to sustain strikes that are ordered, when there are no funds in the national treasury. Most of the cigar makers have books and newspapers, and are well posted in affairs. Thinks the majority of working people are in debt, owing to sickness and insufficient pay; that they are generally church-going in habits; and that the class having deposits in the savings banks are generally those without education or culture.

XXVI.

S., a cigar maker, 26 years old; is a coöperator. Takes three papers. The prevalent amusements of the place are balls, dances and travelling shows. The Irish and many Americans are regular at church; Germans, English, and a goodly number of others do not attend, but spend their time at home or visiting; there are many Jews; these have no place of worship. Most cigar makers belong to trade societies. The term of apprenticeship is three years, and the union does not allow a person to leave his employer unless he has a note from him or from the director of the shop. Should there be good reason for the boy's leaving, he will be supported by the men; if not they oblige him to return and serve out unexpired time, or be debarred from working at the business. Has been in four or five strikes for advance of wages, and at all times voluntarily. The point was gained in each case. The loss to each man was \$15 or \$18 a week, less the amount drawn from the union, \$5 for single men and \$8 for married men per week; the loss to an employer on ten men would be about \$75 or \$100 a month—from \$7 to \$10 per M. Among cigar makers almost nine-tenths sit in a common chair leaning over a table, when at work; the other tenth stand—some sit straighter than others; but many are subject to pains in the side and breast. A man can work a year with an expenditure of \$2 for tools. Women and children assist the men, getting \$5 and \$6 a week of ten-hour days. The work is such that a man can allow his mind to wander to any subject; forming or conceiving ideas is not a hindrance to this labor. Very few are in debt; there is no immediate reason why they should be if they have health and will work. Many are in business for themselves or own homes. The causes of debt are usually loafing or carousing. Many have a travelling disposition. Work used to be taken to private houses a great deal, but the U. S. internal revenue laws now prevent it. Machinery is being introduced by many, but the result is not yet established. If these cigar machines prove a success, ordinary workmen will be left without employment, as only the best workmen will be retained as finishers. In that case, if thoroughly introduced, they will displace half the present force in the United States, allowing for the same ratio or amount of consumption as at present. The saving to the employer under the present prices would be about \$3 per M. There are three coöperative associations in town manufacturing cigars. Generally in our coöperative shop an hour a day is spent in listening to voluntary reading by some one of the workmen. The strictest attention is paid. The topics of the day form the subject-matter, and when the newspa-

pers are dry and dull, some history or other work is procured and read alternately by the men who can read to satisfaction, or if some favorite reader is called into the service, the men “chip” together and pay him the rate made at table or bench.

XXVII.

S., a boot crimper, says: Am 56 years old, have been married 18 years, and have four children. Live near my work and get my dinners at home. Take a political, a religious and an agricultural paper, and have ample time to read them all; also cultivate a garden out of working hours. There is no provision made in the community for mental culture or social recreation, so the working-men take their amusement largely in a liquid form. Am not specially anxious my son should follow the trade. Am a member of a trade society, which costs me about \$5 a year, but have never (thank God!) been into a strike. Trade union has increased my earnings through its effect in prolonging the working season; it has also been a benefit to me socially. From 1852 to 1857 worked eighteen hours a day. It so injured my health that if I had continued the practice a few months longer, I should probably have gone out of business; have known those who did the same thing to break down entirely. It is not safe for a man to work more than ten hours a day, but this he can do well enough. Have earned less money since the reduction than before, working at piece work. When more time is given to working-men it is not always used to the best advantage. The impression forced upon me by my observation is, that those who work the fewest hours, under ten, drink the most rum; so I think that an increase or decrease from that standard would not produce good results. Half the working-people in the vicinity are in debt; the principal cause being an injudicious use of money. Much the larger number do not own any real estate, but live in hired houses, paying from \$50 to \$150 a year for rent. Church and Sunday school are well attended; have known of no division of profits among workmen by the manufacturers in this region. Have worked for the same employer eighteen years. Don't know any general rule as to apprentices, except to get as much work out of them for as little money as possible.

XXVIII.

D., a boot crimper, 36 years old, rents half a house of ten rooms (five rooms and cellar), paying for the same \$72 a year. Has eight in his own family, and in the house there are sixteen persons. Lives ten minutes' walk from his place of work, and goes home to

dinner. Takes a newspaper, but at night feels more like going to bed than reading it; his best recreation is sound sleep. At work stands most of the time, and has little change in position; gets very tired with long standing; work tends to rheumatism. Served an apprenticeship; has help from a son eleven years old, after school, and about fifteen hours a week; if can get a better one for him don't want boy to follow his own trade. Employers are prosperous; they are building big shops and putting up big houses. Has been in one strike for the enforcement of a society rule; it lasted three weeks, and the result was satisfactory, loss in one direction and gain in another. Belongs to a trade union; cost, \$2.60 a year; it has increased wages, and in various ways educated into a knowledge of the value of labor. Intemperance is discouraged by it; and enlightenment gained on matters of practical interest to members and their families. Trade unions are of vital importance to the working-man. Some employers have discharged hands for belonging to them; in such cases we support each other. In 1863 and '64 worked fourteen hours a day; works now sixty-eight hours a week. Under the old system always felt sleepy and tired out; can make as much money in eleven hours now, as he could in fourteen; the long hours have a hurtful effect upon the system; would often give more at meal-time to sleep than to eat. Reduction in the hours of labor is good, if wages are not reduced. There are many among us in debt, some needlessly. Plenty of hard-working men, on account of sickness, have to be helped. Wages ought to be high enough so that something could be saved for such times; but it is very hard to save anything under present prices for work, and the cost of living. The latter has increased three times and the former only twice as much, since the war as before it. Sunday worship is quite well attended; but many don't feel in the fashion, or are too tired; a few go fishing. There is a Young Men's Christian Association reading-room near by, and that is the only place for reading or instruction. There is no savings bank in town; money is put into real estate, and interest secured by mortgages. Employers do not divide profits, but divide hard work pretty evenly every day. In the shoe factories, quite a number are employed between the ages of eleven and fifteen; in the other factories there are many little shavers working eleven hours a day. Some get their legal schooling, but more do not; the law about schooling needs more attention. The women and children have to go from their eleven hours' work right to bed, they are so tired.

XXIX.

T., boot bottomer, is a Frenchman, 28 years old, has a family of four. Takes work home a good deal, and is there helped by two of his children, one seven, the other nine years old, who work six or seven hours a day. Don't want his children to follow the same trade if he can help it. Learned as an apprentice to make a whole boot; now makes only part of one. Takes one newspaper, and spends time before and after work, so far as recreation is concerned, in reading and smoking, with his family. Has never been in a strike. Is a Crispin, and pays into the society about \$4.50 a year. Thinks he has more work and better pay because of the order. There are fewer cut downs. Many members have been greatly benefited, saving now what they spent before. Worked fifteen or sixteen hours from 1855 to 1860, and by it broke his constitution down. Reducing the hours to ten has resulted in good; further reduction would be beneficial. Nearly two-thirds of the working-people are in debt. One reason is a disposition to get trusted, and so more is bought than would be if cash was paid. Another trouble is strong drink; people that work hard all day don't like to refuse a drink; then they want another, and so time and money go that ought to be saved. About half the people in the town are church-goers; these who don't attend, think they need the day for rest and recreation. The nearest amusement or place of resort is a billiard-room. Apprentices are played out in the trade. In room where he works twelve boys are employed, who are between 10 and 15; the same proportion running through other rooms. They work from seven to ten hours a day, and little attention is paid to the school law. When the term begins they are turned out, but most of them are back again within a fortnight.

XXX.

E., boot bottomer, 31 years old. Is constantly surprised at the number of working-men who are in debt; thinks the largest proportion must be in that plight. A good deal of this results from intemperance. A public library and reading-room are accessible. There are eighty employed in the same room, which is heated by steam and ventilated by registers leading to the room above, and thence out through the cupola. The only accident that has occurred was the breaking of the elevator rope, and its falling two and a half stories. There were three persons on it; one escaped with a sprain, another broke one ankle and sprained the other, and the third broke an ankle; all are now at work, but will never fully recover from their injuries. Works in a standing posi-

tion, the worst effect of which is seen in the shoe-bottomer's weak stomach; some have to leave the business on its account, and all have more or less trouble therefrom. Did not serve a regular apprenticeship, but learned the different parts at different times and places and of different men. Teaches his son some, but does not think he will work at it as a business. Has been in strikes twice, both times for an increase of wages, once of free choice and once in order to comply with the wishes of shopmates. One was short and a success; the other lasted three weeks and was not successful. The last time lost by it about \$45. In the summers of 1857, 1858 and 1859 worked in a woollen mill from 4½ A. M. to 7 P. M., with only an hour out for meals. The effect was a general impairment of the health, so that he would have to go out occasionally and recruit. The Sundays of the working men are generally spent at home. Want of interest breeds Sunday "sickness" and "fatigue."

XXXI.

W., boot bottomer, 48 years old, has a family of thirteen. Long experience has taught him that a man cannot bring up a family and educate its members properly on his labor for wages. Commenced working at the early age of eight and a half years, and worked twenty years in a cotton mill before commencing boot-making. Is thoroughly familiar with the privations and oppressions of working-men and working-women, but cannot stop work long enough to tell them.

XXXII.

M., boot-maker, 24 years old. Lives six miles from place of work, fare per day twenty-eight cents, and time consumed in going and coming an hour and a half. Takes one daily and two weekly newspapers, and has time to read them, though little for any other recreation. The working-men of the neighborhood patronize mostly concerts, balls, parties, and billiard, bowling and lager-beer saloons for amusement. The work done requires one to be in about the same position most of the time; diseases incident to the business, consumption, dyspepsia, constipation. Served an apprenticeship of three months; skilled labor has diminished in value since the introduction of machinery. Belongs to a trade union; expense, six dollars a year. Has known one man discharged for his interest in labor matters. Earns better wages now, working fifty-four hours a week, than he did four years ago working from ten to fifteen hours a day. A decided benefit would result from a still further reduction. About three out of five working-men in

the vicinity are in debt ; causes, rum and lack of work. Few are savings-bank depositors ; most of those who have such savings are low in the scale of education and social habits. Never knew or heard of any example of a division of profits between employer and employed. In a cotton factory in town there are fifteen children employed between the ages of ten and fifteen ; all work eleven hours a day or sixty-four hours a week. A great many children in the place do not have their legal schooling. The employers are not generally to blame in the matter. The boys and girls are usually turned out of the mills once in six months so that they can go to school, and a new set of hands put on in their place. In many cases the parents, instead of sending the children to school, put them to work at home ; indeed, most of the children have to work evenings after they get home from the factory. A factory hand says that some of the boys in the mills will not tell their ages, because their parents would whip them if they did, and some say they are sixteen and seventeen years old, when really under fifteen, in order to evade the law. The influence of this factory work on the children is very bad. The union to which he belongs has increased wages twenty-five per cent., has in many cases reduced the hours of labor by natural laws rather than arbitrary rules, and has been of great educational profit ; those members that have been regular in attendance have improved in both temperance and industry. The system of working ten and more hours, with steady and intense application, is injurious to the body and mind ; its effects remain with one for years afterwards. The more inquiry he makes into the condition of laborers the greater is his surprise and astonishment.

XXXIII.

C., a boot-maker, 36 years old, has a family of six. Lives upon the house and land of his father, of which he has the full use by paying the taxes and making repairs. Takes two newspapers, and has abundant time for reading. Does not desire his son to follow the trade. Takes work from the factory to be done at home, and is sometimes helped by his boy, thirteen years old, when out of school. Belongs to a trade union ; cost, from \$3 to \$5 a year ; benefits, incitement to produce better work, besides many other good results. Nine-tenths of the laboring people are in debt, which can be traced to fluctuations in business. Taking one year with another they have no more than a fair living, so when business is dull they have to live upon credit, and earn enough in good times to get square again. About half are in the habit of attending church, the chil-

dren more generally than their parents ; the other half are indifferent, but spend their time in a quiet manner. There are very few cases of real want. Most of those having families have places of their own, wholly or partly paid for, with land improved to a greater or less extent.

XXXIV.

G., boot cutter, 40 years old. Has known many to be discharged for connection with strikes or labor-reform movements. Taking an active part in trade unions and labor societies has cost him \$20 a year. Rum is the great curse among members of the order. About all the working people around him are in debt, and many have been reduced to a condition of want and absolute dependence. Cause, low wages. They don't go to church very much, though their children attend Sunday school. Reason, the church is composed of moneyed men, and it is no place for a day laborer to show himself. There is no suitable place in the neighborhood for instruction or innocent recreation. In 1862 worked fifteen hours a day, and has never got over it. Has lived in twenty different factory towns, and has observed that young women who work in the factories are many of them ruined in morals and nearly all in health. A rosy-cheeked girl put in a mill will begin to fade in three months. They make poor housekeepers.

Laborers are told by their employers that they must elevate themselves and lay up money ; that nobody's wages are so small but that something can be saved. This is sheer nonsense, for it is impossible for day laborers to elevate themselves under the present wage system. If one of them does step up one round in the ladder of the social scale, he is pointed out to us as a sample of what *all* might do. Opportunity makes a man quite as often as brains. My hand-work has taken the second premium at a State Fair, yet I have been obliged to work for 40 cents per day and support my family, which consisted of four. I have been so poor that I have borrowed a pair of pants in order to make a decent appearance on the street. Fifteen years ago an opportunity was offered by which I could better myself. I accepted it, and by prudence have saved the great amount of \$600, while my employers have got rich in the same time. There are many men who have worked the same length of time, and have not been able to save one dime,—all because capital is powerful and dictates its own terms. Here is an example showing how opportunity makes the man, and how man wickedly uses his fellow-men: An acquaintance of mine obtained through friends a \$300,000 contract in the city of New York. He at once

lets it out to another man, and goes to the city of Paris to spend the season. The second party receives \$1,500 a month to oversee the work, with the free use of a coach and pair of horses. He hires one or two men to look after it, gives them orders to pay no bone-and-muscle laborer over \$1.75 a day, and to discharge them if they strike, then puts coach and horses on a steamer and goes from city to city spending his time in gayety. The contractor made \$125,000 on the job, and the workmen were barely kept from starvation. The questions I constantly ask myself are these: Can the condition of the mass of workmen be improved? If so, how?

XXXV.

H., a boot cutter, 45 years old. Has a family of four. Takes newspapers, and in the counting-room of the manufactory there is a small library to which all have access. Employer is a very benevolent man who contributes freely to help the unfortunate, whether his own employés or not. Has never been in a strike, but belongs to a trade union; cost, \$5 a year; benefits, a little higher wages and steadier employment. Previous to 1861 worked eleven hours a day; now works ten; gets more pay on the shorter time, but notices no other special effects. Thinks ten hours about right. A third of the working people in the neighborhood are in debt; causes, sickness, imprudence and intemperance. No children employed in the establishment, but ten or twenty find work in a heel manufactory in town, where they work ten hours a day. About half the help in the shop where he works are fixtures; the other half are constantly changing.

XXXVI.

H., shoe laster, 30 years of age. Is now renting a house with seven rooms, at a cost of \$200 a year. It is on the railroad, a mile and a half from work, and his ticket costs him \$24 a year. Does not work after 6 P. M., and so has evenings to himself for reading or recreation. At work sits upon a stool or seat with feet a little above the floor, and body somewhat stooping. Keeps the same position the day through. The work produces chest and lung diseases. Has been sick himself for nine weeks this year with lung complaint. Picked up the trade, but if he had a son would not allow him to work at shoemaking, if he could help it. Worked 11½ hours a day in 1868; now works 10 hours. In either case health breaks down at the end of a few weeks. Further reduction of hours would have a good effect. Is satisfied by bitter experience and the observation of others that long hours of labor debase a

man morally and physically. Can earn more money himself by working nine hours a day steadily than by working eleven hours steadily. Belongs to a trade union; expense about \$3 a year. Its effect has been to increase wages and improve the members by giving them confidence in themselves and each other. Don't think it has made them more temperate. Has been in strikes for increase of wages; they generally lasted about ten days, and resulted in a compromise. Is satisfied that employes lost more in proportion than employers. Has known others to be discharged for participation in labor movements. The major part of the laboring class in town do not patronize the best class of amusements and recreations, though as a whole they are a very moral and intelligent set of mechanics. They generally attend Sunday worship. The higher privileges of culture are a public library, a Young Men's Christian Association, and a similar association for young women. At place of work a hundred are employed, and in same room about thirty; but few boys under the age of fifteen are at work. The building is heated by steam, and ventilated by windows and by draft-holes in the walls; one stairway to two buildings, and doors all open inward. The accidents which occur come from getting the hands into skiving, splitting, and rolling machines; they are very frequent, but result from carelessness. Rates of pay for the same work are not uniform in the place. Changes in fashion promote production; the more styles the better it is for the workmen. A large share of the working class of the place are almost constantly in debt; cause, insufficient work.

Owing to various positions I have held, I have had an intimate knowledge of the men composing the mass of shoemakers, and I *know* that when there is any trouble between the employer and employes, or any trouble between the "Crispins" and the "bosses," it is not the most intelligent or most reliable men, among the workmen, who agitate and foment trouble. The respectable and intelligent class stand aloof, while the rash, the hot-headed, those having no purpose in life or anything to sacrifice in the community, are the ones who make the trouble, and who do not (as a general thing) bear the blame. I have been engaged in a number of so-called strikes, and never but once have I seen them successful, and I firmly believe that it is about the worst thing a body of men can do,—a great deal worse for them than for their employers.

Hundreds of men in the same branch cannot do half the work I do, many more who cannot do two-thirds as much, and only three or four who will do what I can,—and of course they earn only proportionally as much. Very few shoemakers in the place have

work more than eight or nine months in the year, and many that work by the week get only from \$8 to \$12, besides losing more time, as a general thing, than the piece workers. The mass of workmen will not average more than \$500 or \$550 a year, and the place is one of the dearest in New England in which to live. As far as regards workwomen, I am acquainted with a great many, and most of them do not earn enough to secure them a respectable living, and I have the testimony of my wife, who was overseer of a stitching shop for three years, employing as many as forty girls, that the majority of them do not earn as much, or do as well, as a competent house servant.

XXXVII.

T., a McKay machine operator ; has three in his family. Works by the piece and has a settlement with employer every Saturday. Lives a mile from factory, and when work is driving takes dinners at a restaurant ; spends an hour and twenty minutes a day in going and coming. Takes some newspapers and finds time for recreation. Works in a standing position, and thinks the employment has a tendency to irritate the spine ; is in a room with forty others ; sometimes accidents have occurred in the factory, such as the loss of fingers by leather-cutting machines. Served no apprenticeship in connection with his work, but had a natural turn for machinery ; tools incident to the work cost \$200 a year. Most of the machinery in the general business has been introduced within ten years ; it requires more skill for the machine work and less for the hand labor ; the division of labor has been of some benefit in putting men on parts of work they were adapted to. Was in a strike in 1860 which resulted disastrously to the shoemakers and proved a good thing for the manufacturers. In 1863 worked thirteen and fourteen hours a day, and lost money thereby. The reduction of hours is a benefit in every respect. Can do more work in seven hours than in eight or ten, following the thing up for months or years. Working long hours is disastrous to body and soul. It destroys every particle of independence and energy a man has ; it makes him a target for all the ills of life. Has reduced his working time to seven or eight hours a day, during the last year or two, and finds the greatest benefits from so doing, both in wages and in all other respects. Is doing more work this year than at any preceding time, and making better wages. Finishes the work of the week on Saturday noon. Belongs to a society of his own branch ; cost, \$3 a year. Its effect has been to increase earnings, and promote knowledge, understanding and temperance. His

wages are as high as those of any working-man in the city; has one of the very best jobs and steady employment. Doesn't think the shoemakers of the city average over \$15 a week; half of them change employers every year. The division of labor in the business is having a tendency to put a great many children to work who are less than 15 years old.

XXXVIII.

G., a shoemaker, belongs to a trade union and pays annual dues. Was discharged by one employer for joining it, as also was a comrade. This trade society has had the effect of reducing the hours of labor from twelve to ten, and has induced the manufacturers, without strike or threat, to raise wages five per cent. Its members, male and female, do their work better and are steadier in and out of the shop, and are generally the better therefor. Reading-rooms are connected with the lodges. The organization has had improving effects, morally and socially; their business is carried on in a straightforward manner; most of the members, male and female, belong to temperance organizations. The working hours were from twelve to thirteen from 1860 to 1869. Nearly half the working people are in debt, most of them from want of work; they are often in actual distress. About a third of them attend public worship and are interested in Sabbath schools. The rule of the trade as to apprentices is, that a son can, by an inherent right, learn the father's trade.

XXXIX.

G., a shoemaker, born in London, was six years old when he came to this country. Is now 33. Commenced shoemaking at eleven, and has worked at it ever since. Was married at seventeen to an American girl of twenty-one, and has one child. Had no money at time of marriage, but his wife had \$650. The money was invested in a house and two acres of land. Had to pay \$1,200 for it, but it was all cleared off in less than five years. In 1862 went into the army, without bounty, and on \$16 per month saved \$500 which was all spent in improvements upon the place. Wife worked in the factory the three years he was gone and took care of herself. She was a weaver and took charge of six looms. After he returned and went back to shoemaking she continued working in the mill at intervals. The girl, now nine years old, attends school. Thinks he has not saved anything since the war. Living has been high, and, taking the year through, has not averaged more than \$1.50 per day. Get work only about nine months and a half.

Was wounded in the army and gets \$4 a month pension. Rise in real estate makes the home place to-day worth \$6,500.

XL.

H., a shoemaker, is 27 years of age. Thinks few of his own trade are in debt, and that most in the cotton, linen and woolen mills of the village are so on account of starvation pay. In these factories hundreds of children under fifteen years are employed; the working hours are from seven A. M. to seven and a half P. M., with an hour for dinner. Whole sheets of paper could be filled with the names of children who do not have their legal schooling. Thinks it a murderous act to make children and young girls work as many hours as they do. To stand at the gate after the day's work is over and see these unfortunate persons come out, one would judge from their looks that they were coming from a hospital.

XLI.

W., a shoemaker, 33 years old, learned the trade of his father at sixteen years of age. At work keeps in a stooping position, but is never sick. In many instances the stomach caves in; has seen it so bad that you could lay your two fists in the hollow. Consumption follows. Some give out at thirty, but knows a man that works every day and is now seventy-six years old. New machinery introduced: dies to fit soles, and pegging machines; twenty-five per cent. less of help required to do the same work; those who continue to work earn more money than before; the cost of machinery makes it impracticable to go from the bench into business; goods are made faster but no cheaper than before; work is rendered more monotonous; stitching machines have done away with shoe-fitting, a business at which women and children earned a great deal of money and by which whole families were often supported; on the whole, machinery is no benefit to the poor man—he is made poorer and the rich richer by it. Has never been on a strike, but belongs to a trade union, to which he contributes to the amount of \$5 a year. It is a grand thing, and is having a good effect upon many members; try to make the lodge room pleasant to those who would otherwise be hanging around grog-shops. They forget their old haunts for one evening, at least, in a week. Works sixty hours a week. From 1860 to 1869, worked seventy-eight hours. Can earn more money on the shorter time, and thinks a further reduction would be of advantage. When he works very hard, loses memory and grows fretful and nervous; thinks eight hours long enough. Half the working people are in debt, and good, honest men among

them are sometimes in actual want and straitened circumstances. Many are in debt from carelessness, laziness and intemperance.

XLII.

D. is a shoemaker, 29 years old. His wife works in a cotton mill; lives half a mile from work; takes a literary journal, a labor paper and a natural history magazine, and gets time to read by stealing it from needed sleep. Work requires him to stand nine hours out of ten, with head and shoulders bent forward; physical injury results from the position in the shape of consumption, dyspepsia, etc. Average length of life in the trade twenty-five or thirty years. The machinery introduced during the last ten years does away with the necessity for as much help by one-third as would otherwise be needed; the manufacturer fills his orders in half the time, and the workman must take his prices for the other half. A branch of the hat business in the same town has been nearly ruined by machinery. Work is more monotonous than formerly. Has known men discharged for being Crispins. In 1856 worked fourteen and fifteen hours a day. It affected the health so as to lay him by for four or five days in a week. Reduction of time has increased wages by thirty-three per cent., and has been otherwise beneficial. Further reduction is desirable. A fourth of the working people are in debt from lack of work, sickness and insufficient pay. A man in the place who was in a suffering condition was relieved by the Crispins, who contributed \$50. The working people are not habitual attendants upon public worship, though their children generally attend Sunday school; after being confined in shops all the week they prefer to take out-door exercise or quiet rest at home.

XLIII.

S., a shoemaker, 50 years of age, has worked at the trade 40 years. Has a family of six; wife covers bat or base balls, besides doing her housework, and the children work in the shop also, besides going to school three months in the year. Wife works from 5½ A.M. to 10 P.M., and himself and three children work fifty-nine hours a week, besides chores. Rented last year five rooms for \$132, but this year will have seven rooms and pay \$200, and be more comfortable. House three-quarters of a mile away. Keeps but one store account, which is settled monthly; is paid once a month for his work. Takes a daily, two weeklies, and two monthlies. Spends two evenings in the lodge-room from 7½ to 10 o'clock, and other evenings, after sawing and splitting wood, spends the time in

reading and writing. Shoemakers in the place generally dance on Saturday nights; Saturday afternoons in the right season many play base ball; while six evenings in the week many of the young and middle-aged roll ten-pins and play billiards. Works in a shop where there are 153 men, women and boys, and in a room with 31 others. The building is heated by steam through iron pipes, and ventilated by windows and doors. A common wash-sink, with water at hand, gives opportunities for cleanliness, and the men find their own towels, soap, combs and glass. Each man finds his own lamp, for winter use, the company supplying oil. The stairs and windows give the only escape in case of fire. An elevator runs through the centre of the building, from cellar to attic, with a place to load and unload in each room. A person not long ago was fooling with the ropes that raise and lower it, when a young man put his head out in the run-way to see who was there, when, unknown to him, the elevator had started down. He was caught by the head and his neck broken. The manufacturers contributed \$20 and the foreman \$10 towards the funeral expenses. At work, sits on a low stool, most of the time in the same posture, the same motions being necessary every four or five minutes through a day. It does not exercise the mind at all. The stomach is weakened by pressing against it and by the stooping forward, many not being able to stand it more than a few months at a time; constipation and piles are also frequent. Those who find themselves unable to work without suffering great pain, go fishing, or to sea, or to the farm until recruited again. The cost of tools to each man is about \$15 a year. Used to take out work, but does not now. Since the introduction of machinery it is difficult for a man to teach his son the trade, as only a single part is carried on in a given room. Does not desire his sons to follow the business, but necessity compels it. Three men working with machinery can do what required six men before, in making and finishing shoes. Skilled labor is of less value than formerly. A man of small means, moreover, cannot go into business and compete with the large establishments. The cost of production is lessened, as the amount is increased, taking it on the basis of a single pair. But for the Crispin order, shoemakers would to-day have been virtually beggars. Its money cost has been \$2 a year; while its effects have been increased earnings, and increased soberness, temperance and industry. By restricting apprenticeship for a certain length of time, wages have been kept up, which is a virtual increase. Works now ten hours on five days, and nine on Saturday. Until last winter had worked from twelve to sixteen hours a day. Only these endowed with a perfect organization can stand such labor.

The change to less hours has been a great improvement; just begins to feel the benefits of ten hours' labor; still further reduction is desirable, and would prove advantageous. Very few shoemakers in the place are out of debt and able to keep out. On their small wages they cannot save enough to carry them through the four or five months when there is no work, and many have sickness to contend with also. Friends help them in such cases; and they are also aided by the Young Men's Christian Association. Wages are about the same as before the war, while the cost of living has advanced 40 per cent. In 1861 board was \$3, and in 1870 \$5 a week. In 1861 averaged 17 cents a pair for brogans; in 1869, 18½ cents; in 1870, 17½ cents. The employer knows just how much it costs to keep the breath of life in his employés, and if he finds they are getting ahead, he cuts wages down just low enough to prevent it. The working-people of the place are noted for their observance of the Sabbath and its privileges. The reading-room of the Young Men's Christian Association is open to all every evening, and a manufacturer of hats provides for the use of his own hands a good room, well lighted and heated; furnishes it with stands, seats, tables and reading matter, hires a janitor to attend, supplies checkers, dominoes and chess, and keeps it open from the middle of the afternoon till bed-time, the year round, wholly at his own expense, for the instruction and amusement of his help. His institution has proved a great blessing, and if the example was followed by other large manufacturers in the place, great good would result. There is a coöperative store in town; its shares, in less than four years, have increased in value from \$10 to \$36. Few children are employed in the manufactories of the town, parents thinking more of educating their sons and daughters than of killing them with work. Concerning factory work, speaking from observation in Lowell, he thinks children would be 500 per cent. better off by working on a farm, and that factory work by young people is resulting throughout New England in effeminate offspring. Before the time of trades unions was in one strike for increase of wages, which lasted twelve weeks. Was out of work for ten weeks, at a loss of \$40 in earnings, as wages were then. Had \$75 in money and some provisions; lived on that, helped others that were needy, and had some left. The point in contest was gained. The circumstances and incidents were as follows:—

During the winter of 1859–60, the manufacturers not having quite recovered from the effects of the panic of 1857, and not making money as fast as they wanted to, agreed to cut us down to what was called starvation prices, in the middle of the inclement season. They

were paying from 15 to 20 cents per pair, and reduced to $8\frac{1}{2}$ to 15 cents per pair, deducting also 3 cents per pair for necessary findings. Ten pairs were a hard day's work for a man, which would give him from 50 cents to \$1.25 per day. We were not satisfied to work in that way, so we called a meeting, and, after talking the matter over, agreed to strike for the old prices. This was February 14, 1860. We chose officers, issued circulars and sent them to the manufacturers, praying them to give us our old prices and desist from a course which must starve us and our families; but our prayer was treated with scorn and contempt. We could do nothing but fight it out as best we could, and the strike continued until the first of May. The manufacturers pledged themselves to each other not to give any work, so long as they lived, to four of our leaders. All four went into the army as privates; two came home bearing the rank of Colonel, and one came home as Captain, and one was shot and killed in the Red River expedition. Of the three, one is an able lawyer, one a shoe dealer, and a third is in good business. So it was a benefit to most of these men to be refused work, and some wish the same treatment had been meted out to all. The manufacturers were altogether to blame in the matter.

In other places there were strikes at the same time, and for the same purpose; in these places no men were out so long, and most of them for only three or four days, before they got their price back. Shoes were rising in the market at the time, and continued to rise thereafter, the price going up as much as fifteen cents a pair. The manufacturers in town were led by a man who never seems to care a cent for the rights of any one but himself, knowing no power or God but his money. This man's obstinate will and arbitrary influence was the only bar to an earlier concession of prices at the time; and, to this day, if a man hints to him that his pay is hardly sufficient, the answer is ready at once, "I have no more work for you." It is hard to see why it is not better to make the consumer pay two or three cents more a pair for his shoes, than to cut lower down a man who cannot, by hard toil at the wages given, make a comfortable living. We have it constantly dinned in our ears that supply and demand govern prices; but we have found out to a certainty that this is not so. To test the thing, notice these facts: without the aid of machinery, six men will make a case of 60 pairs in a day, for which they will get \$12, less the cost of findings, which would give each man about \$1.70 cents a day; on the other hand, with the machinery, three men will do the same amount of work in the same time, and get about the same pay each, as the men on hand work. The goods sell as high in the market, in proportion to

cost, in 1870 as in 1871. On his wages the workman, with a family to support, cannot certainly earn enough to provide anything for old age. Query: Who gets the difference in money saved by machinery? and how far does supply and demand govern in these things?

We are paid off in the manufactories of this place, on the second Saturday, up to the first day of each month. The rule is, that if any one wants a few dollars between one pay day and another, five per cent. is charged for the so-called accommodation. Sometimes it happens that they do not pay us for a week after the regular time, then we get nothing for waiting for the accommodation. One of the hands wanted fifteen dollars one Friday afternoon, it being the day before pay day, and he had to pay per cent. for it; this is the way we are used, and we can have no redress.

XLIV.

A journeyman mechanic gives his views upon the causes of the present condition of labor as follows:—

It is said that the rapid increase of wealth in our country, during the last eighty years, is without anything approaching a parallel in the history of nations. Now the question arises, into whose hands has this wealth fallen? Has it fallen into the possession of the few, or into that of the many? Evidently the former. And I think that, could the disparity between the possessions of the two asses to-day be shown in round figures, in contrast with what it was in years gone by, we should not only be astonished, but alarmed,—alarmed because we know the greater the capital the greater the facilities for adding to that capital; or, in plain Saxon, the stronger the moneyed power becomes the stronger it may be.

And when we come to reflect upon the increasing numbers of the wealthy here at the North, and consider how natural it is for them to desire the weakening of the working classes, we cannot fail to see the unavoidable necessity of earnest and united action on the part of the people in order to withstand their aggressions.

Coming more to the practical, in answering the question how can we help ourselves, our most natural reply is: Our power lies in the government, certainly. But is the government made for us, as I have said, or are we made for the government? We might suppose the latter, to hear some people talk, or more especially to read some of the laws upon our statute books.

Now, then, if the government is made for and by the people, why does it not meet their wants; why do not our servants in Congress

and in our State legislatures pass such acts or laws as will answer our demands or necessities?

In pressing our claims upon the government there is one thing concerning which it is not easy to see how working-men can disagree, and that is, the benefits which they would derive from a complete revolutionizing of the present banking system, if not its total destruction. From whence come mainly the resources of the speculator if not from banking corporations, who, issuing in promises to pay, agreeably to their charter, twice the amount of their specie basis,—and the Lord only knows how much more,—are enabled thereby to keep well up to the former's demands. It is like this: A sharper sees a chance to speculate, and straightway goes in, no matter if every dollar he is worth is already invested, and paying him twenty per cent. profit at that; all he has to do is to scribble off his notes, and with a bank to back him up he is all right, and we poor devils, with our hard earnings, have to suffer.

Take the wholesale merchant, starting with a limited capital,—borrowed perhaps. After having established himself a little, and gained the confidence somewhat of the business community, he soon makes the discovery that his paper also may be discounted at the banks; and now he begins to see his way clear to get on in the world, and strikes out for his share of the spoils and plunder, all to come out of the sweat and labor of the working people, who, forsooth, as some would have it, “can't help themselves.”

Banking corporations are the very soul of speculation. Abolish them and you would see such a fluttering among speculators as no financial panic ever began to produce. It seems to be a scheme of robbery, the most cunningly devised and successfully carried out of anything that was ever foisted upon the American people.

XLV.

L., a shoemaker, 32 years old, takes all the reading matter he can afford, and reads Sundays and after seven o'clock in the evening. Thinks the general taste of the working people improving in the matter of concerts and lectures. Twenty-five others are employed in the same room, which is ventilated by a scuttle in the roof. In most of the shoe factories the doors open inward. In ninety-nine cases in a hundred, when a person's ability to work ceases from accident, his pay ceases also, and any relief obtained comes from his fellow workmen. While working, stands bent forward all the time; employment has some tendency to catarrh. Children too young to work; should not desire sons to learn trade because already overdone, and with further improvements in machinery the

prospect would be still more unfavorable. Expense of tools and fixtures for work \$40 dollars a year. Machinery has rendered a good deal of labor less valuable, and has made it more difficult to start in business on one's own account; it has increased production 100 per cent., and diminished cost about 50 per cent. Work rather monotonous; does not much interest the mind, and in cases of overwork often injures the brain. Has been in several strikes, lasting from one to six weeks each, at a loss of from \$10 to \$75 each; they generally ended in favor of the men; object, higher wages. Belongs to a trade union; cost, \$5 a year. Works now by the piece and 54 hours a week. From 1855 to 1860 worked 66 hours a week, and often more. Further reduction would be desirable. Two-thirds of the working people are in debt; cause, trying to live decently and not being able to earn the necessary wages to do so. The only reason in most cases for non-attendance at church and Sunday school is a want of respectable clothing to wear. There are a number of places in easy reach where facilities are given for instruction and innocent recreation. Quite young children are employed in the cotton factories of the town; and it does not look as though they had the legal amount of schooling. The shoe business is so conducted now that there is no apprenticeship. It costs, as a general thing, all one earns at mechanical work to live, if justice or anything like it, is done to self or family. With regard to strikes, has often been obliged to enter upon them from surrounding circumstances; a necessity for raising wages or preventing a cut-down. If one humble individual strikes, and combined capital opposes him, he makes about as much headway as a child would building a railroad alone. Should be happy to see the need of strikes entirely removed, but consider them necessary evils. As to trade unions, their tendency is good. They promote temperance by putting those badly inclined under the influence of men more soberly disposed. The members also improve in general intelligence, and that too almost imperceptibly to themselves. There has also been some gain from them financially. In regard to hours of labor, it is evident that if one could earn enough to live on in eight hours, so that he could go home and take some out-door or other exercise, in a different place from where he has been confined all day, and thus secure a change of air, the benefit would be incalculable; in a few years we should see a happier and healthier set of people. There is abundant room for improvement in the matter of hours of labor in factories of all kinds. There are men, women and children working in factories under conditions which a man of independent spirit would not subscribe to for the entire establishment, much less for the miserable pittance received.

XLVI.

H., a salesman, 29 years old; from acquaintance with day laborers, can say that those with families seldom save anything. Never knew a day laborer or piece workman to become independent on his wages. Finds that many hard-working day laborers have strong desire for intellectual improvement; but not being favorably situated as to hours, they are obliged to deny themselves the coveted luxury, or be deprived of needed rest. In regard to low wages, we know very well that a man receiving them cannot have the actual comforts of life with a family to support, but must deny himself necessities even, and then come short at the end of the year. For one, I am fortunate in being employed by a man who is determined to live himself and willing others should live also; but the larger class of laborers in this place are not so well off, but are persecuted, tyrannized over and roughly treated by their employers, and almost made to believe that they are nearer brutes than human beings. It may be said that this is only an assertion, but observation has convinced me of its correctness. Our legislature holds long sessions, but only a small part of its time is devoted to the alleviation of the condition of the poor. Mill operatives, I have reason to believe, suffer more than is generally known, and I think they deserve a strict protective law. Time to educate the mind is one of the greatest requirements of the laborer at the present day; with less hours, wages will necessarily become higher, and the laborer will become elevated, morally, mentally and physically, and not without. As it stands now, he cannot have education and living too.

XLVII.

R., a printer in Boston, says: Have never struck or worked for underpay, but was the victim of a most senseless and despotic strike, when all the hands of the office combined to prevent my working because not a member of the printer's union at the time.

Our hours of labor per week are fifty-nine. I think ten hours a day throughout the year in a printing office too exhausting. Eight hours are enough (taking the duration of a lifetime), but am confident they would not afford sufficient profit for employers at prices now obtained for work. Think most printers would be well satisfied if their necessities and moderate aspirations could be obtained by nine hours' labor per day. It is the last hour, in the winter season, that prevents their attendance at places of amusement, instruction and devotion; for one must pass from a heated and vitiated atmosphere, with mind and body wearied by long confinement and perplexing toil, supperless and unrefreshed, to the church

or lecture-room, if he would be in season. The high rents demanded render it difficult for the respectable printer to live with any degree of self-respect within the old city limits; and after supper at his home in the suburbs, and preparation for the early morning meal, but little time remains for mutual improvement or social intercourse. This last hour exerts a depressing influence, and, I think, to a greater or less degree, affects the health of all obliged to submit to it.

XLVIII.

B. relates this experience:—There is no established reading-room in this place. Several years since, when the subject of labor reform had been broached, during the heat of the discussion I presented to a meeting certain resolutions (afterwards printed and circulated to some extent), which put the question of a reading-room in such a relation to that of labor reform that the “moneyed interest” was almost logically bound to accept one or the other of the two issues. They chose the first. Accordingly a small room was fitted up, exclusively by the opposition to the “eight-hour fanaticism,” as it was called, without any consultation with us who had occasioned the movement. The rooms were kept open several months, then closed. It had the appearance of an intellectual banquet for the time, but was christened, by some, as an apology for justice. The reason assigned for closing the room was what some of us foresaw would be given, under these auspices, to wit: *Too great an expense for so small an attendance.* In my opinion it is idle to expect that those who have been sweating in the harness of labor all day will be regular attendants upon *any* literary institution in the evening. It is natural that they should seek something more exciting and exhilarating. It was on this ground we made our claim for a reduction of hours. I own a small printing office and my wife about an acre of land. We do the work mostly ourselves for both. If we are not strictly employés, we have, nevertheless, virtually experienced the ordeal of a discharge, so far as our chief printing business was concerned. The principal firms of this place (whose business is machine work, castings and manufacturing patents for cotton and woollen factories) had employed me to do all their printing, which was quite extensive, for some 12 or more years prior to the agitation of the labor question, with no complaint as to price or manner of execution. During the agitation in this place (commenced by Mr. ——— and myself), the patronage of these firms was withdrawn. The reasons, as stated by the general agent, were,—first, high prices; second, poor execution; third, my interference with the interests of the firms by the agitation of the labor question. I

thought the last reason was really the *first*, for it was remarked by the agent that they did not wish to furnish me with funds to “carry on the war,” as he expressed it. We (self and wife) were printing the “Modern Age,” in which the labor question was discussed, and which went down, as to patronage, under the odium brought to bear by the “money power.” It was in its seventh volume, and was suspended in July, 1866, the labor discussion dating several years prior. Some thirty of us then organized a “Social Science Society,” making labor our central problem. The same force was brought to bear against us. On one occasion an intelligent workman in the machine-shop came to me and said, “We were right, it was God’s truth.” As he was accustomed to public speaking I invited him to speak at our meeting. He said, “You know how I am situated. I am liable to be discharged at any moment.” He then drew a written paper from his pocket which he said I might read to the meeting, but he did not think it best for him to be present. *And this man was the inventor of valuable improvements in machinery*, which had been made use of by his employers, and from which, as I learn, they have probably received thousands of dollars of pecuniary advantage. He was an aged man, and, although he had been industrious for a lifetime, his means were limited. Two successive presidents of the society above named resigned their office, very obviously in obedience to the same general pressure of the opposition. A prominent capitalist declared, in a religious meeting, just after a notice of our meeting had been read, that “the Social Science meetings ought to be stopped,” and objected to renting the hall, which was under the church, for our meetings. Several of our members discontinued their attendance, and finally the meetings were held at private houses.

NOTE.—The allusion to over-production in shipping, on page 573, specially needs the following explanation : The recent Report of the Committee of Congress on the Decline of American Commerce, shows conclusively that the committee failed to appreciate the facts which are proved by their own tables. Marked tendencies to excess in production had existed for twenty years previous to the war, caused, first, by the great stimulus given to building, by the introduction of large-sized, cheap ships, constructed of southern pine, followed by the great profits of the California and Australian trade.

ENGLISH HALF-TIME SCHOOLS.

We now proceed to give some testimony of experts on the subject of the Half-time schools in England, of which we have already spoken on pp. 493-7 of the foregoing part of the Report, and we desire to express our full accord in the suggestion of Mr. Atkinson, p. 494, that these schools might be established with great benefit in all our larger towns and cities, say, for cash boys in our retail stores, boys in printing offices, newspaper boys, boot-blacks, &c., and to very many girls occupied in clothing and other sewing establishments, and in various other employments, thus making it possible for them to get at least a moiety of education, while on the same days earning something, as they are compelled to do, for their support. We earnestly invoke attention to this most important consideration.

The school and work hours will be found on pp. 494-7, and testimony following illustrates the time during which the attention of children may be profitably employed, and the comparative acquirements of children under the full and half-time methods, with some allusions to music as a branch of instruction in these schools.

The testimony was taken for the Education Commission, and was collected and submitted by Edwin Chadwick, Esq., pursuant to an Order in Parliament of June 25, 1861.

The "Half-Time School" theory displayed in the excess in practice of the ordinary hours of book instruction in all popular schools, beyond the natural limits of the power of attention on the part of the average of the children taught.

1. MR. WILLIAM STUCKEY, *Master of the British School, Vineyard, Richmond. Fifteen years a teacher.*

Q. Will you describe your experience and observation as to the time of the day during which it is practicable to sustain a bright, interested and voluntary attention on the part of the children of the average ages taught in public schools? A. In my experience

two hours in the morning and one in the afternoon is about as long as a bright, voluntary attention can be secured. *Q.* You cannot, then, do so more than three hours a day? *A.* I cannot, certainly. And in consequence of my experience of the inability to sustain the same amount of attention in the afternoon as in the morning, the exercises in my school are so arranged that those merely imitative are taken at that time, such as writing, drawing, &c. Writing, for example, is a sitting and quiet imitative exercise, requiring less intellectual attention than arithmetic. Such exercises I find, therefore, best for the afternoon. *Q.* Are you to be understood as stating that, as a general rule, the capacity of attention is exhausted within three hours, even with varied interesting lessons? *A.* Yes; however interesting the lessons may be, the attention of the great majority will be exhausted within that time. *Q.* Do you find much difference in the classes, in social position of children, in respect to the capacity of attention? *A.* Not much difference in the average of scholars; the middle-class children have somewhat the advantage, though exceptions are found distributed among both classes. With the very lowest class there is difficulty in obtaining attention at all. *Q.* What difference is there between the capacity of attention of boys and girls? *A.* Not much, according to my experience. In mixed schools, the girls give better attention than the boys on particular subjects, but I do not think that their general power of attention is quite equal to that of the boys. *Q.* What do you find to be the effect of the present long hours of school teaching? *A.* The children are not able to give bright attention to subjects brought before them for the whole time they attend school, and this begets habits of inattention arising from mis-occupation of time. With the brighter attention greater progress will be made in the shorter time. Three hours a day, is, according to my experience, as long as children can be profitably employed in school. Beyond that, attention for intellectual improvement is useless.

2. MR. ISAAC PUGH, *engaged in the school instruction of the laboring classes since 1823.*

Has taught about 3,000 boys. The school he conducted has, on the average, changed the scholars about every three years. The national school hours are six hours in summer and five hours in winter. He says: In my experience these hours of school instruction are too long, particularly in the summer. You can, under the best circumstances, keep up the attention of children only a limited time, with safety to the children, and that time is less than the present time. After a certain amount of attention and mental effort, they become wearied and inattentive, and consequently what is done in

that state of mind is a mere waste of time and of the teacher's labor.

3. Mr. JOHN PEARSON CAWTHORNE, *Head Master of the Richmond National School.*

Q. How long have you had experience in teaching? *A.* I have been nearly twelve years a teacher, during which I conducted the Chichester Central School, where there were about one hundred and fifty boys. I quite agree generally with Mr. Pugh in his statement of the limits of profitable attention in school teaching. *Q.* How do you find the capacity of attention at different times of the day with even varied relief lessons? *A.* In the morning we find the last half hour very wearying; in the afternoon we find the first hour bright, the next half hour less bright and the last half hour worse than useless. *Q.* Could you not fairly exhaust voluntary and unstrained attention within three hours, from day to day? *A.* Omitting the ornamental subjects and those used for relief, I certainly could exhaust the pupil's attention in three hours daily. The boy's mind would be completely exhausted with the hard subjects by two hours' attention in the morning and one hour's attention in the afternoon. *Q.* Do you think it desirable to exhaust their attention completely? *A.* No; I think the effects of a complete exhaustion are injurious. *Q.* Supposing a class of children, say of seven years of age, brought to you from an infant school, in what period, with full control of the means, could you undertake to bring them to the understood good educational standards in reading, writing and arithmetic? *A.* In three years; reading intelligently, writing fairly and spelling correctly, and in arithmetic as far as decimals, exclusive of problems, which I think require more matured minds. *Q.* Would you not, in bringing them up to these standards, have given them the elements of future self-improvement? *A.* Undoubtedly, and they might afterwards go on themselves with problems or anything else. *Q.* Supposing, instead of the children at seven years of age, coming direct from fair infant schools, they came direct from the streets, without any previous school education whatsoever, ignorant of reading and writing, how many years would you require to bring them up to the standards of reading, writing and arithmetic? *A.* I would not undertake to bring them up to the same standard before their twelfth year. The infant school is of the greatest importance. I estimate the infant school teaching, of which I have had experience, as equal to the saving of one-third of the time of education. Good infant school teaching lays far the best foundation for a good education. *Q.* If you were left to yourself, to the attainments of the standards stated, of reading, writing

and arithmetic, would you use other, and what adjuncts as means ?
A. As reliefs, I should use the bodily exercises, and drawing and music, and a little practical science. *Q.* Your answers are understood to be founded on your experience of large schools and systematized teaching ? *A.* Yes ; but my experience goes to this,—the larger the school the better the means of organization, and of efficient tuition and progress with the scholars. On the small scale necessitating the individual teaching of boys, I could not insure anything like the same result, in large schools ; such results are secured by collective teaching. *Q.* If your own son were brought up to the elementary standards stated, would you at ten years resist his going into employment, if profitable employment were offered ? *A.* On mental or educational grounds I should not resist it ; but on bodily or physical grounds I should, because children at that age are not fitted to cope with laborious pursuits. *Q.* Would the half-time on the same day or alternate days meet the difficulty as to full bodily labor before the frame is more strongly built up ? *A.* Very well ; I should feel no difficulty myself with respect to a half-time system. *Q.* Have you had any personal experience or observation of what is now becoming known as half-time system ? *A.* No ; not with boys, but I have no doubt of its advantages. Indeed, one proof of the efficacy of a half-time system of education is afforded by the experience of mixed schools, in which the girls generally have only half-time, the whole of the afternoon being devoted to needle-work ; and yet it is a general observation that the girls with the shorter time of book instruction, are quite equal to the boys, who are full time at book instruction. Mrs. Cawthorne for some years conducted mixed schools in Sussex on the modern system, and she affirms that the girls were always on a par with the boys, and in some respects superior to them.

4. MR. DAVID DONALDSON, *First Master of the Free Church Training College, Glasgow*

Q. Will you be so good as to state the results of your experience as to the extent of profitable attention and mental labor in young children : (a) As to the average time of profitable lessons. (b) As to the length of time during which profitable mental labor or attention may be maintained with the average of children. (c) During what part of the day ? *A.* My experience as to the length of time children closely and voluntarily attend to a lesson, is—

Children of from	5 to 7	years, about 15 minutes.
“	“ 7 to 10	“ “ 20 “
“	“ 10 to 12	“ “ 25 “
“	“ 12 to 16 or 18	“ “ 30 “

I have repeatedly obtained a bright, voluntary attention from each of these classes for five, ten or fifteen minutes more, but I observed it was always at the expense of the succeeding lesson, or, on fine days, when the forenoon's work was enthusiastically performed, it was at the expense of the afternoon's work. I find the girls generally attend better and longer than the boys, to lessons on grammar and composition; the boys better and longer than the girls to geography, history, arithmetic and lessons on science.

(b) For children under seven years of age, I have found three hours per day to be the extent of profitable mental labor,—two hours before and one after dinner; for children between seven and ten years of age, three and a half hours per day; for children between ten and twelve or thirteen years of age, four hours per day; and for pupils above that age, four and a half hours per day. In these periods I include the time devoted to the daily Bible or catechism lesson. Of course, some pupils of these ages can work advantageously for half an hour or even an hour longer; but taking the average of children, these periods mark the extent of profitable mental labor and attention per day. And there is very little difference in the powers and capabilities of children of the different classes of society, with the exception of the neglected children of the lowest classes, and for a time after they have entered school. Children of the same age are very much alike in mental capacity.

(c) The best school hours are those before dinner, between ten A. M. and two P. M. I reckon one hour before dinner worth nearly two hours after it, and for the last four years I have arranged the lessons accordingly. All work requiring close mental effort, such as grammar, composition, history, geography and lessons on science, is gone through in the forenoon; writing and arithmetic are afternoon work.

On the "Half-Time School" practice in English Factory Schools ; and on the equality or superiority in book attainments of "Half Time School" scholars, taught within the (so called) natural limits of the capacity of profitable attention.

1. Testimony of MR. JOSHUA BOLTON, *Head Master of the Factory School of Mr. W. Walkers, at Bradford, Yorkshire* (which is attended by 490 boys and girls).

Q. What is the comparative condition of the pupils under the short-time as compared with the long-time school system? *A.* From my experience and observation of the half-time scholars, as compared with the full-time scholars, I consider that the former are more advanced. They come fresh from work to school, and they go fresh from school to work. I believe that the alteration is in both ways beneficial.

Q. What is the comparative experience of the short-time pupils in the factory? *A.* MR. WALKERS. Where I had to complain one hundred times thirty years ago, I have now scarcely to complain once. The change for the better is immense.

Q. Do you not find your commercial interest in the improvement?

A. Most decidedly, notwithstanding that we spend a very large sum on the school every year. It is to the interest in every way, of all employers to see to the education and good conduct of their work-people. *Q.* (To MR. BOLTON.) What is your experience as to the teacher's exertion requisite to keep up attention during the short-time as compared with long-time school hours? *A.* In the afternoon of the full-time schools, I certainly found it very difficult, after the first hour, to keep up the attention of the pupils. During the first hour it was easy, after that it was an up-hill, sliding scale of difficulty.

2. MR. JOSEPH LONG, *Master of the Manchester Road Model Factory School, Bradford.*

In my experience of more than six years in this school, where we now have an average attendance of 178 boys, the half-time or factory boys give us a more fixed attention than the others; they seem to be more anxious to get on, and I believe that in general attainments they are full equal to the full-time scholars. I believe it would be of much advantage if the afternoon hours, at least of book instruction, were reduced.

3. MR. JAMES JOHN CURTIS, *British School, Rochdale.*

Q. What is the general result of your experience of the half-time scholars here as compared with the full-time? *A.* My experience leads me to say that the progress of the half-timers is greater in proportion than that of the full-timers.

4. MR. JAMES DAVENPORT, *Machine Worker* (employing between 500 and 600 workmen).

In my experience as an employer, the short-time scholars are decidedly preferable to the full-time scholars, or those who have been exclusively occupied in book instruction. I find the boys who have had the half-time industrial training, who have been engaged by us as clerks or otherwise, better and more apt to business than those who have had only the usual school teaching of persons of the middle class, and who came to us with premiums. In fact, we have declined to take any more of that class, though they offer premiums. They give too much trouble and require too much attention.

5. MR. JAMES WRIGLEY, *Head Master of the Parochial School, Rochdale.*

The school contains 720 children, boys and girls, of whom there are 158 girls. There are 320 half-timers,—170 boys and 150 girls. During the 14 years he has been master, he had under his tuition between 6,000 and 7,000 children, of whom about 4,000 would be half-timers.

Q. Do you find that that time, the two hours and one-third, is as much as you can profitably occupy them? *A.* I think myself that we are really at the limit of profitable attention with them. But I consider that we can and do keep the attention during the two hours and one-third. *Q.* What is the general result of the half-time system upon the occupation of the pupils in after-life? *A.* Many of them obtain good situations afterwards; many of the clerks in town have been half-timers. I do not think them superior to the full-timers, but I think them equal in general working capacity in after-life to the full-timers.

6. WILLIAM JOHN SMITH, *Teacher to the School of Messrs. Chadwick and Sons, Flannel Manufacturers.*

Q. What is your experience of the relative attainments of the half-time and of the full-time scholars? *A.* In my experience, the half-time scholars are quite equal to the day or the full-time scholars. I believe it is the impression of the parents that their children get on as well in their book instruction in half as in full time. *Q.* Is this conclusion as to the equality of the half-time to the full-time scholars applicable to girls as well as boys? *A.* Quite so. I may add, that when I have had to select pupil-teachers, nearly all, or full three-fourths, have been taken from the half-timers. *Q.* To what do you attribute this equality of the half-timers to the full-timers? *A.* I should say, that it is chiefly owing to the habits of industrial occupations, to their better attention to what they set

about. They certainly come to their school work with better habits of attention than the day scholars. Q. How long do you find, on the average, that you can maintain concentrated attention amongst children from day to day, without wearying them, or having to urge them as to an unwilling drudgery? A. I should say that two hours in the morning and one in the afternoon is quite as long a time as a concentrated and willing attention can be kept up. Q. Would you extend the time of the half-time scholars? A. No; I think the teachers would become exhausted within that time, if they teach with vigor, and that the scholars' attention could not be secured for a longer than the present time of the half-time scholars.

10. MR. JAMES AMES, *Head Master of the Ancoats Lyceum School, Manchester.*

Q. What is your experience of the relative mental acquisitions and aptitudes of the short-time, as compared with the full-time or day scholars? A. I find that the half-timers are more intelligent and capable of learning, and that, relatively, they attain a higher standard in the various subjects taught. The half-time scholars are more orderly and more easily managed than the day scholars, and by their coming fresh from their work in the afternoon, we can better secure their attention,—better than the day scholars. I have a decided opinion that the admixture of industrial occupation tends to make the scholars industrious in the school. The half-time scholars do not trifle or waste their time so much as the day scholars. The half-timers set to their writing or their lessons with great earnestness, and with more business-like qualities. The day scholars do very little after half-past three. It is a universal complaint that they get tired and play considerably after that time.

MR. GEORGE BOWES, *Second Master of Half-time Industrial School at Swinton (Yorkshire, West Riding).*

Have had experience more than six years, mostly under the Half-time Factory School Act, and can testify that in the half-time Cotton Factory schools, the half-timers are fully up to the full-timers. But in the Print Works schools, of but six weeks' schooling every six months, it was far otherwise. The children, when they returned to school after long intervals, had forgotten what they had learned, and we had, when they came back, to put them down in lower classes, and I scarcely knew an instance of their getting into an upper class. This was the common observation of other teachers as to the detrimental effects of the Print Works Act.

REV. ISAAC HOLMES, B. A., *Chaplain and Head Master of the Liverpool Industrial Schools at Kirkdale, Yorkshire.*—(“Half-time Schools.”)

Q. What has been the extent of your experience in school-teaching? A. Twenty-four years and a half. Q. What was your experience as to the time in which you could exhaust the voluntary attention of children in study in a day? A. In regular lessons, or regular study, the attention may be exhausted in about two hours in the morning, and rather more than one in the afternoon. Q. What is your time of book instruction, in hours in the day, in your institution? A. It is about three hours and a quarter, including religious instruction. Q. Then this is, in fact, a half-time school, with half school time during each day instead of on alternate days? A. Yes. Q. Now, comparing the book attainments of the children on this system, with those of the like classes in the ordinary national or day schools, in what position do you find those who have been through the half-time course in the full period of years? A. The attainments of the children here are greater than of any of those I have had charge of before, of the same age and the same years of instruction. All the other schools which I had before were full-time schools of six hours daily. Q. Then you are decidedly of the opinion that the half-time scholars are in advance of the full-time scholars? A. Decidedly in advance, girls as well as boys.

In answer to further inquiries as to whether he could by marks show the difference between the half-time and the full-time scholars, he gave in the following account of the Corporation North Schools, where they have long hours:—

	Full Time, per cent.	Half Time, per cent.
Can read and write well,	15.3	43 8
Imperfectly,	35.0	26.6
Can read imperfectly,	11.5	15.4
Cannot read,	38.2	14.2

Q. What is your opinion of the comparative merits of the half-day system as compared with the alternate day system? A. For educational purposes I prefer the half-day time, but for industrial purposes, the alternate day ; that is to say, regulating the labor on the alternate day according to the physical powers of the child. I consider that the continued labor on the alternate day may be a better preparation for active life. Of course I do not contemplate for

children that they should on *alternate days be subjected to the full labor of adults*. I should prefer, in fact, the alternate days for the full-grown girls only, say of not less than 13 years of age. Mainly on moral grounds, I prefer the alternate day or the full labor, for girls of that age.

MR. WALTER MACLEOD, *Head Master of the Model School, Royal Military Asylum, Chelsea.*

Q. How long have you been engaged as a school-teacher? A. Twenty-two years. Q. How long do you find it practicable or profitable to sustain a bright voluntary attention of the boys during the day? A. I should say that good attention can be sustained in the morning from nine to eleven, but at eleven the attention begins to flag. The best school hours are, I think, from ten to twelve o'clock. Q. How is it after meal-times? A. They are then always sleepy. Q. Referring to the common school time, of five or six hours' daily sedentary attention, what is the result of your observation as to their duration? A. In my view, they are greatly too long, and I find that labor in teaching beyond about four hours, including breaks and variations, is fruitless. Such lengths of school-hours as those which are common, are not only worse than useless for the pupils, but they are injurious to the master. No master can go on vigorously for more than four or five hours consecutively, day by day, without injury to himself. Those who are in school six hours daily, cannot be actively engaged in teaching all the time. Q. Will you have the goodness to prepare a table for a two hours' and a three hours' daily course, and also a time-table for a full course on alternate days? A. Yes, I will. Q. Are there any elementary tests which, in your experience, you would deem sufficient for testing the efficiency of school-teaching, or the proficiency of scholars? A. Yes; reading, dictation, composition, and arithmetic. Q. Would these suffice? A. Decidedly. Q. How would you apply them? A. By *viva voce* and written examinations. Q. How much time would be requisite to test, by sufficient examination, a division of a school, say of three hundred? A. In a school of that size, the upper division would be about seventy, and those might be examined in the subjects specified, in a day. A few minutes' cessation from studies spent in the playground, are of incalculable benefit to children, both physically and mentally. The very punishment inflicted on children frequently arises from a neglect of those laws which we cannot violate with impunity. We keep them sitting for an hour or two on hard, uncomfortable seats, without any movement of the body; tired of

sitting, they get restless; inhaling impure air, they become heavy, dull, and stupid; disorder and neglect of lessons are the results, and the master resorts to punishment, which only increases without removing the evil. If, instead of punishment, we sent them to run in the play-ground, to breathe pure air, to engage with the master in sports which exhilarate the mind, then, as a general rule, it would be found that on their return to the school-room, there would be order, discipline, attention to studies, and a healthy moral tone would pervade the school; *for the play-ground is the grand arena where the moral faculties and the affections should be cultivated,—where the master should take the place of a parent, and the pupils that of a household.*

Mr. Macleod sent in the following time-table for two and three hours' daily instruction:—

Time-Table for Two Hours' Daily Instruction.

T I M E .	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.
From 10 to 10½ o'clock, . . .	Reading, . . .	Reading, . . .	Reading.
10½ to 11 o'clock, . . .	Writing, . . .	Grammar, . . .	Writing.
11 to 11½ o'clock, . . .	Arithmetic, . . .	Arithmetic, . . .	Arithmetic.
11½ to 12 o'clock, . . .	{ Reading, . . . Geography, . . . }	Writing, . . .	Dictation.

T I M E .	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
From 10 to 10½ o'clock, . . .	Reading, . . .	Reading,* . . .	Mental Arithmetic.
10½ to 11 o'clock, . . .	Composition, . . .	Grammar, . . .	Composition.
11 to 11½ o'clock, . . .	Arithmetic, . . .	Arithmetic, . . .	Arithmetic.
11½ to 12 o'clock, . . .	{ Reading, . . . History, . . . }	Writing, . . .	{ Reading.* Geography.

Time given to each subject per week.

Reading,	4 hours.
Writing,	2 “
Composition,	3 “
Slate and Mental Arithmetic,	3½ “
Grammar,	1 hour.
Dictation,	½ “
Total,	14 hours.

* Or given *viva voce* by the teacher.

Table for Three Hours' Daily Instruction.

T I M E .	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.
From 9 to 9½ o'clock, . .	Reading, . .	Reading, . .	Reading.
9½ to 10 o'clock, . .	Writing, . .	Composition, .	Writing.
10 to 10½ o'clock, . .	Slate Arithmetic, .	Slate Arithmetic, .	Mental Arithmetic.
10½ to 11 o'clock, . .	Grammar, . .	Dictation, . .	Grammar.
11 to 11½ o'clock, . .	{ Reading, . . Geography, . .	Reading, . . History, . .	Slate Arithmetic, or Tables.
11½ to 12 o'clock, . .	Music, . .	Drill,* . .	Object Lesson.

T I M E .	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
From 9 to 9½ o'clock, . .	Reading, . .	Reading, . .	Reading.
9½ to 10 o'clock, . .	Composition, .	Grammar, . .	Writing.
10 to 10½ o'clock, . .	Slate Arithmetic, .	Mental Arithmetic,	Slate Arithmetic.
10½ to 11 o'clock, . .	Dictation, . .	Writing, . .	Drawing.
11 to 11½ o'clock, . .	{ Reading, . . Geography, . .	Reading, . . History, . .	Reading. Poetry.
11½ to 12 o'clock, . .	Drill, . .	Slate Arithmetic, .	Music.

Time given to each subject per week.

Reading,	5½ hours.
Writing,	2 “
Composition,	1 hour.
Slate Arithmetic,	3 hours.
Mental Arithmetic,	1 hour.
Dictation,	1 “
Grammar,	1½ hours.
Music,	1 hour.
Drill,	1 “
Drawing,	½ “
Object Lesson,	½ “
<hr/>	
Total,	18 hours.

* Military drill under a sergeant of the army. No provision seems to be made for a recess.

Table for Instruction on Alternate Days.

TIME.	Monday and Tuesday.	Wednesday and Thursday.	Friday and Saturday.
From 9 to 9½ o'clock,	Reading, . . .	Reading, . . .	Reading.
9½ to 10 o'clock,	Writing, . . .	Slate Arithmetic, . . .	Composition.
10 to 10½ o'clock,	Slate Arithmetic, .	Dictation, . . .	Slate Arithmetic.
10½ to 11 o'clock,	Dictation, . . .	Grammar, . . .	Dictation.
11 to 11½ o'clock,	Grammar, . . .	Writing, . . .	Mental Arithmetic.
11½ to 12 o'clock,	{ Reading, : : } { History, : : }	Mental Arithmetic, . .	Reading.
2 to 2½ o'clock,	Slate Arithmetic, .	Read History, . . .	Arithmetic.
2½ to 3 o'clock,	Writing, . . .	Composition, . . .	Read Geography.
3 to 3½ o'clock,	{ Reading, : : } { Geography, : : }	Slate Arithmetic, . .	Writing.

Time given per week to each of the above subjects.

1. Reading, including Geography and History,	4 hours.
2. Writing,	2 "
3. Composition,	1 hour.
4. Grammar,	1 "
5. Dictation,	1½ hours.
6. Slate and Mental Arithmetic,	4 "

Total, 18½ hours.

The school is to be opened and closed with prayers.

EDWARD C. TUFNELL, ESQ., *Inspector of Schools.*

*Q. Are you inclined to insist on music as part of a popular course of instruction? A. Certainly; music, whether singing or instrumental, has a powerful effect in softening and humanizing the children. The most remarkable instances of its effect in this respect, are drawn from ragged schools or reformatories. I may particularly mention two,—one entitled the East London Ragged Shoe-black Refuge, the other the White Chapel Refuge, each of which contains about 200 boys, and I have to visit them officially, as the Privy Council assists them largely. Many of the boys in these schools have been criminals, and, indeed, the wildest children in London; and instances were mentioned to me of some of the most undisciplined and ill-conditioned boys having been reduced to order and discipline solely by being placed in the band, when all other means had failed. The master of one of these establishments informed me that the committee had been considering the propriety of giving up the band, on account of the expense, but he informed them that *he would sooner pay for it himself, than give it up*, as he found it so powerful an engine for maintaining order and discipline.*

Q. Has an apprehension expressed that the teaching of vocal and instrumental music would lead youth into dissipated courses been justified by the conduct of the pupils? *A.* No, I do not know a single instance of it; and so successful has been this introduction of instrumental music, that I believe the managers of all these schools will allow that no industrial occupation yet introduced has been so successful in enabling the boys to gain an honest and independent livelihood. As I was particularly anxious for the success of this species of industry, I have made particular inquiries as to how the boys that so got into regimental bands, have conducted themselves, and from the colonels, bandmasters, and from the boys themselves, nothing can be more gratifying than the reports of the way in which this industry has answered. *Q.* Would you introduce *drawing* as a branch of popular education? *A.* I have not sufficient experience as to drawing to enable me to speak decisively on it. However, in several schools a species of drawing, which the Germans call “ornamental writing,” has been introduced with great effect, and I have known boys who have shown talent in this direction, earn high wages by writing the ornamental prices of articles which are often seen in shop windows. Such boys have also been in request by painters who are engaged in ornamental letter writing and gilding. In some schools where map-drawing has been introduced, a surprising amount of skill in this branch has been developed, and such boys have generally been taken into service by engravers. *Q.* Would you unite the two sexes in one school? *A.* In the few instances of large schools, where I have seen the plan tried, it has never been attended with any inconvenience. *The result is, that the girls appear to assume a superior firmness and modesty, and the boys a more refined and less boisterous demeanor.* The girls are much quicker in comprehending religious instruction, and the boys in acquiring arithmetic. Thus a sort of emulation seems to spring up between them, which sharpens the faculties of both sexes. In the large schools belonging to the Home and Colonial Training Establishment in Gray’s Inn Lane, containing more than 700 children, the two sexes have always been instructed together, without a trace of complaint from any one; and in the last report from the committee of that institution, I find these remarks: “They would take this opportunity of reiterating the testimony they have so frequently given before in favor of mixed schools. Experience has shown that the characters of both boys and girls are improved when they are educated together; the boys are rendered less rough and overbearing; the girls acquire strength of mind and decision; they are mutually taught how to behave towards each other. Moral

training is much facilitated, and the committee have every reason to believe that a greater majority of children educated in such schools turn out well in after-life, than where girls and boys have been kept distinct in school-time, and been necessarily thrown together on leaving school, under no restraint or supervision." In Scotland, this arrangement has long formed a marked feature in the parochial schools, and its expediency is warmly maintained on theoretical grounds by the chief promoters of education in that country. In Holland, Germany and Switzerland, which are the best educated countries in Europe, the plan is very general, as I have myself often witnessed.

11. MR. EDWIN SIMPSON, *Head Master of the Swinton Half-Time Industrial Schools, Township of Manchester.*

Q. Would you, from your experience, include *vocal music* as part of your instruction? *A.* Yes; I have no doubt that the practice of vocal music is most valuable in schools. It improves the taste and "cheerfulizes" the routine of school duty, and it enables the scholars in after-life to pursue the study of this most delightful art "with understanding." Wherever it is practicable, the introduction of an instrumental band is of very great importance. I believe that the military band which is trained here, exercises a most valuable moral influence over the children. Frequently, during the winter months, about six hundred of the children in these schools are assembled in one of the large schools at about seven o'clock in the evening. An overture is played by the band, then an interesting but brief story, selected from the popular literature of the day, is read by myself or one of the assistant masters; this again is followed by a piece of music, not Ethiopian melodies, but selections from Beethoven, Mozart, and other classical writers, and thus, alternating music and reading, a very pleasant hour is spent, and with the best effect upon the children. *Q.* Would you include any sorts of *drawing*? Yes, the most useful kinds, *i. e.*, drawing as adapted to the probable future of the children. It is, probably, generally more important that a boy should be able to draw correctly the elevation of a house, or the section of a common pump, than that he should be an adept in delineating the intricacies of a Corinthian capital or an antique scroll. There are several propositions of Euclid which might be taught with advantage in all schools; hence I think that a course of practical geometry would be of great service in schools generally. *Q.* Have you any suggestion to make tending generally to the improvement of public education? *A.* I think the position of the teacher, as it at present

exists, militates seriously against the healthy, systematic of public education. The profession of a teacher is at ^{an} anomalous one, and the most valuable members of it are ^{an} usually leaving it for other occupations less onerous and more lucrative. It is an occupation in which the value of experience is as important as in any other class of employment, and it is exactly the most experienced teachers who are most frequently seeking other engagements. A young teacher, twenty-one years of age, will, under the present system, enter at once upon a rate of emolument nearly as high as he can ever expect to obtain; he has no incentive to emulation, for there are no prizes in his profession to which he can look forward as the legitimate reward of perseverance, skill, and success. The youngest curate and the least experienced barrister may aspire to a bishopric or the bench, and the medical student has abundant means which he may contemplate as the reward of diligence and merit. Not so the teacher. He reaches at once, or in a very few years, the limit of his professional status, and there remains nothing to stimulate him to perseverance and industry. This admittedly unsatisfactory state of things might be legitimately remedied by the appointment of the most successful teachers to the post of inspectors of school, and, I venture to suggest, with advantage to the public service. It is no slight upon the present staff of school inspectors to say that they have all had to learn, or are still learning, the duties of their office; and there cannot be one of them who would not readily admit that previous experience as a school teacher would have been of the greatest value to him as a preparation for the duties of his post. Hence there can be no question that teachers of experience would be fully competent to the discharge of these duties.

12. MR. WILLIAM NASSAU MOLESWORTH, *of Spotland, Rochdale, says:*

I think it may be said that the following points have been established, by the concurrent testimony of all the schoolmasters and other witnesses examined:—

1. That a master can completely exhaust the children's capacity of attention in less than three hours, even with intervals of repose.
2. That, where the teaching is anything like equal, a manual and industrial occupation gives great advantage to the child in the acquirement of knowledge.
3. That the half-time system has given to the children of these districts an education which they most certainly would not have obtained if long school hours had been required.

4. That the half-time system might be introduced with very great advantage into other trades and occupations.

5. That a competent and trained master can teach a large number much more effectively than a small number; *i. e.*, meaning with the organization of assistants, pupil-teachers, &c.

6. That, as a general rule, the working-class schools afford, in the same time, a much better education than the English middle class schools.

The adoption of this system would, we think, remedy both difficulties in the way of the education of factory children. These are the need of the parents and the needs of the factory—each being willing to yield something—the parents, a part of the pay of the children, and the mill something more than the pay actually earned by the child, in rigid count of its time. Earnestly hoping the experiment may be fully tried in Massachusetts, we append the following letter from Mr. Kilburn, Treasurer of the Naumkeag Mills at Salem:—

General H. K. OLIVER, *Boston*:

DEAR SIR,—I annex answers to your questions in relation to the children employed by the Naumkeag Steam Cotton Company.

No. 1. How many children are required for your work?

Answer. About 142.

No. 2. How many are required in order to let one set go to school? Is it double the number required under No. 1?

Answer. No. We now employ 184 children, 57 of whom attend school one-half of each day, and 127 of whom are not now going to school, having complied with the law. Fifty per cent. of the children we hire do not remain with us as long as three months, and therefore do not go to school while in our employ, if they have previously attended school within the year.

No. 3. What are the detailed hours of school, and what of work?

Answer. The school children work five and one-half hours, and attend school two and one-half hours, daily. One-half of them go to school in the morning, and the other half in the afternoon.

No. 4. What are the branches taught to these children?

Answer. Reading, writing, spelling and arithmetic, with singing by rote.

No. 5. What is their pay—school-time out?

Answer. An average of two shillings per day.

No. 6. What is the effect of the school-training on the children in their work?

Answer. (They are more tractable, and more sprightly at their work.

I remain, yours very truly,

JOHN KILBURN, *Agent.*

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.

To remedy a want long felt among the most considerate classes of mechanics and others, a society has recently been organized in Boston, the first society, we believe, in the United States of a class long well known in Great Britain, as Friendly Societies. Its objects are, first, to secure to the widow, child, or nominee of each member, the payment of one thousand dollars upon such member's decease, all the surviving members paying sums varying from one dollar to one dollar and thirty-five cents each; secondly, to secure an allowance of from four to five dollars per week for each member during sickness; and thirdly, to provide an annuity of two dollars per week for life for each member on attaining the age of sixty-five years; all of which is to be effected by fixed contributions from the members, graduated according to their age.

It has long been the practice of various "orders" to receive contributions from their members, called "sick dues," and to distribute to their members weekly payments during sickness; but none of them have hitherto adopted the plan of providing superannuation funds, or annuities, or the payment of more than a very limited sum in case of death. The Unity Mutual Life Assurance Society, founded in Boston in 1867, limits its action to providing a fund of one thousand dollars for each member, out of contributions of one dollar per capita, payable at death.

The society to which we refer is called the Workingman's Mutual Life and Health Assurance Association, and has been founded in conformity with the principles elaborated in the publications of John Tidd Pratt, the late registrar of Friendly Societies in England. As such associations have been managed with signal success in Great Britain, no reason is apparent why equal success should not attend their operation here, provided they adhere inflexibly to the principles on which they are founded.

ERRATA.

Page 30, line 2 from bottom, for *hereditary* read *hereditary*.

Page 73, line 10 from bottom, for *where there* read *when*.

Page 176, line 18 from top, for *calling* read *culling*.

Page 262, line 5 from top, for thirteen at \$100 read thirteen at \$1,000.

Page 272, line 6 from top, for *rulers* read *reelers*.

Page 279, line 3 from bottom, for 470 read 495.

Page 491, line 15 from top, for *forces* read *force* ;—

Page 505, line 19 from bottom, for *conjunctiviti* read *conjunctivitis*.

Page 529, line 3 from bottom, comma after *compacted* should be after *distress*.

Page 544, line 15 from top, for *Fear or,* read *Fear of—*

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PART I.—NARRATIVE.

	Page.
Preliminary Statements concerning work of Bureau,	3-6
Assistants,	6-9
Investigation of Strikes,	9-12
Combination,	12-14
Combination by Gilds,	14-25
Combinations by Trades' Unions,	25-39
Strikes,	39-46
Strikes in Massachusetts in 1870,	46, 47
Strike at Fall River,	47-93
at Lynn,	93-98
at North Adams, and Introduction of Chinese Workmen,	98-117
at Marlborough,	117-125
at Worcester,	126-131
at Weymouth,	131-134
at Randolph,	134-136
at Needham,	136-149

PART II.—STATISTICAL.

Remarks and Tables concerning the use of Blank Circulars,	149-154
Agriculture,	154-171
Commercial,	171-197
Fisheries,	171-188
Land Travel and Transportation,	188-194
Water Travel and Transportation,	194-197
Domestic Labor and Women's Work in Boston,	197-230
House Work,	198-200
Hotel and Saloon Work,	200, 201
Home Work,	201-203
Store Work,	203-205
Shop and Manufacturing Work,	205-222
Special Cases and General Remarks,	-230
Industrial,	230-342
Apparel,	231- 92
Chemicals, etc.,	292-297
Food, Drink, etc.,	297-303
Mineral Substances,	-0
Paper, Printing, etc.,	310-3
Miscellaneous,	325-342

	Page.
Mechanical,	342-398
Cars and Carriages,	344-347
Construction and Finish of Buildings,	347-355
Furniture, etc.,	355-362
Metal Work,	362-390
Ship and Boat Building,	390, 391
Miscellaneous,	391-398
Miscellaneous Employments by Counties,	398-416
General Recapitulation, with Tables of Earnings,	417-422
Cost of Living,	423-440
Workmen's Statistics,	440-452
Coöperation,	452-458
Savings Banks,	458-459

PART III.—TESTIMONY AND ARGUMENT.

Working and Home Life of Factory Operatives, their Earnings, etc.,	459-486
Children in Factories,	487-498
Hours of Factory Labor,	498-502
Facts bearing on the Ten-Hour Argument,	503-508
Hours of Labor in Europe,	508-517
Tenement Houses, or Homes of low-paid Laborers in Boston,	517-531
Poverty,	531-538
Intemperance, and the Remedy,	538-557
Hours of Labor,	557-567
Recommendations,	567, 568

A P P E N D I X .

Statements and Experiences of Workingmen,	570-621
Theory and Practice of English Half-Time Schools,	622 638
Friendly Societies,	639
Index, etc.,	643-655

I N D E X.

	Page.
Assistants, directions to,	6-8
Amalgamated Society of Engineers,	31
Appendix,	570-640
" Association of Carpenters,	32
Apprentices, interference with,	22, 25, 26
Arbitration recommended,	44, 98, 139, 187
" English, referred to,	146, 147
Agriculture,	154-171
" blanks on,	154-156
" employment of women in,	159, 160
" " of foreigners in,	157, 160, 161, 163, 169
Agricultural implements,	367
Anchors,	368
Accountants,	203
Augurs,	383
Axes,	383
Artificial light in manufactories,	472
Amusements,	486, 546
Blanks,	149, 154, 155, 156, 230, 231
" extracts from on farm labor,	162-167
" statistics of,	150-153
Boot and shoemakers,	231-249
" " ratio of children employed,	237
" " length of working season of,	238, 239, 241, 242, 243
" " number of, owning house,	240, 244, 245
" " division of labor of,	242, 243
" " factory system,	242, 243, 244
Button-makers,	253, 254
Boiler-makers,	368
Brass and copper workers,	368
Brushes, hair,	392
Bakers,	298
Breweries and distilleries,	298, 299
Butchers,	299
Brick-makers,	303, 304
Bookbinders,	310
Building-mover,	353
Basket-makers,	325
Bleacheries, etc.,	325
Broom and brush-makers,	327
Bell-makers,	369
Bedsteads,	391
Boxes,	391
Bureau, visits of,	66, 68, 94, 98, 128, 339, 517-528

	Page.
Combination,	10, 12
" by gilds,	14-25
" by trades-unions,	25-41
" of employers,	88
Contract, freedom of,	36, 503, 536, 537
Coöperation,	436, 452-458, 552-553
" in fisheries,	184, 185, 186
" in Fall River,	454, 455, 482
Coöperative store at Fitchburg,	453
" " at North Bridgewater,	453, 454
" " at Randolph,	454
" Machine Co., at Greenfield,	455
" Shoe Factory at North Adams,	455
" Foundry at Somerset,	456
" Cigar-makers' Association at Westfield,	457, 458
Chinese labor,	461, 462, 463, 555
" at North Adams,	104-107
" food of,	107-555
" payment of,	106, 110
" labor, tendency of, on trade,	115
" testimony on,	98-116
Cash and errand girls,	203
Cap and hat-makers,	209, 254
Cloak-makers,	209, 210
Custom clothing makers,	210, 211
Cabinet organ-makers,	217
Carpet slipper-makers,	221, 222
Cotton establishments,	256-270
" duck,	270
" batting,	270
" braid and wicking,	270, 271
" thread,	271
Cars and carriages,	342, 343
Car building,	344
Carriage-making,	344-346
Carpenters and joiners,	347, 353
Cabinet-makers,	355, 360
Chair-makers,	355-357, 360
Card clothing,	391
Cooperage,	392
Cotton gins,	392
Chemicals, etc.,	292
Cheese-makers,	299
Chocolate-makers,	299
Curriers,	335
Cordage,	340
Carpets,	327, 328
Combs,	328
Corks,	328
Coppersmiths,	368, 369
Cutlery,	383, 384
Convict labor,	398
Candle and soap-makers,	292
Confectioners,	293

	Page.
Cigar makers,	301, 302
Cost of living,	417, 428-433, 434, 435, 441-445
Children, employment of, 160, 179, 203, 237, 244, 253, 254, 256, 257, 264, 266, 269, 270, 271, 272, 274, 275, 288, 306, 322, 329, 338, 340, 341, 342, 355, 356, 367, 377, 380, 383, 385, 466, 467, 487-498	
“ in Europe,	508, 517
“ schooling of,	265, 266, 338, 339, 464, 467
“ in factories,	465, 466, 467, 498
“ “ law in regard to,	487-490
“ “ corporal chastisement of,	489
“ “ half-time schools recommended,	489, 493-498
Change of help in factories,	471
Dressmakers,	216
Dinner time in factories,	472
England, condition of working people of,	28-31
Education the duty of government,	29, 489, 490, 491, 492, 493
Express and teaming,	189
Earthen and stone ware,	305
Engravers and lithographers,	311
Envelope-makers,	322
Emery workers,	309
Factory labor,	186, 187, 466, 561, 563
“ “ favorable to morals,	469, 470
“ “ introduction of,	26
Factories, cotton,	255-270
“ “ board, price of,	256, 257
“ “ ownership and management of,	262, 263
“ “ foreign element in,	263, 264
“ “ employment of children in,	256, 257, 264, 266, 267, 563
“ “ schooling of children,	265, 266, 468
“ woollen,	279-292
“ “ children employed in,	288, 291
“ “ strikes in,	290
“ “ statements of manufacturers,	291
Factory operatives, home life of,	459, 476-485
“ “ statements on,	459-462, 463
“ “ habits and average age of,	465, 472
“ “ social position of,	461, 474, 475, 486
“ “ relation of Chinese question to,	461, 462, 463
“ “ education not provided,	481
“ “ dividing stores of,	482
“ “ inadequacy of wages,	482, 483
“ “ sanitary condition,	484, 505, 506, 507
“ “ danger by accidents,	484, 485, 504
“ “ non-attendance at church,	486
“ “ hospitals not provided,	486, 507
“ children in,	487-498
“ “ abuses and frauds practised on,	487-489
“ “ education of neglected,	487-489
“ “ comparison with England,	493, 497, 498
Factories, silk,	337, 340
“ “ effect of reduced hours in,	338

	Page.
Factories, silk, Nonotuck Company,	338-340
“ “ educational facilities provided by,	339
“ “ in Freiburg,	514
“ ventilation of,	471
“ sanitary condition of,	471
Factory hospital,	472, 486
“ boarding-houses,	472
“ life testimony of clergyman upon,	473
“ school in Fall River,	494
Family expenses noted,	436-440
Fall River, strike at, testimony on,	47-85
“ “ review of,	88-93
“ “ cost and effect of,	86
Farming,	154-171
“ letter from Hon. A. W. Dodge on,	164-168
Farm laborers, condition of,	161
“ needs of,	169
“ wages of,	156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 164, 170
“ “ testimony of,	170
Fisheries,	171-188
“ questions on,	172
“ vessels employed in,	172
“ details of outfit,	173, 174
“ length and direction of voyages,	174, 175
“ shares and wages in,	175, 177, 178, 179, 182, 183, 184
“ Sabbath observance,	181, 182
“ employment of boys,	179
“ share system in,	175, 176
“ “ in, economy of,	180
“ “ in, influence of,	183
“ “ in, origin of,	187, 188
Ferry and tug-boats,	194
Fancy trimmers,	220
Furs,	342
Felting,	329
Furniture-makers,	355-362
File cutters,	369
Foundries,	363, 364, 365, 369-374
“ type,	325
Fire-arms,	392
Fishmongers,	299, 300
Flour Mills,	300
Flax workers,	340
Forgers,	364
Gilds,	14-25
“ definition of,	15
“ religious,	15
“ effect of reformation on,	15
“ merchant or frith,	15, 16
“ craft,	17, 22, 23
“ power of, to enforce assessments,	18
“ degeneracy of,	20, 24
“ regulations of,	24
“ property of, confiscated,	25

	Page.
Gild unions,	19
Gas Light Companies,	293
Glass works,	305-307
Housework,	198-200
Hotel and saloon work,	200, 201
Homework,	201-203
Hoop-skirt and corset makers,	272, 273
Hosiery,	274
Harness-makers,	329
Hack and livery,	189, 190
Hair-dressers and chignon-makers,	218
Heat of rooms in mills,	470, 471
"Half-time schools" in England,	493, 496, 497, 498
" " in "Indian Orchard" mills,	494
" " in Naumkeag mills, Salem,	638
" " in "Indian Orchard" mills, practical workings of,	494-496
" " " " " letters concerning,	494-496
" " " " " " from Edward Atkinson,	494, 495
Hours of labor and wages,	19, 129
" reduction of, effect of,	338
" " in factories,	498
" " " testimony on,	498-502
" " " facts bearing on,	472, 473, 503, 504
" " in Europe,	508-517
" " argument and recommendations on,	555, 557-567
" strike for reduction of,	45, 48
" of farmers,	169
" of fishermen,	177
" of expressmen,	189
" of drivers,	188
" of hackmen,	190
" of horse railroad employés,	191, 192, 193
" of steam " " 	194
" of hotel and saloon employés,	200, 201
" of clerks,	203
" of cap and hat makers,	209, 254
" of cloak-makers,	209, 210
" of custom clothing makers,	210
" of dressmakers,	216
" of milliners,	217
" of chignon-makers and hair-dressers,	218
" of muff and collar makers,	218
" of paper-box makers,	218, 323
" of shirt-makers,	219
" of umbrella and parasol makers,	220
" of carpet-slipper makers,	221
" of ferry and tug boats,	194
" of boot and shoe makers,	238, 244
" of button-makers,	253
" of cotton establishments,	256, 257, 264, 265, 270
" " thread,	271
" of braid and wicking,	270
" of brass and copper workers,	368, 369
" of file-cutters,	369

	Page.
Hours of labor of foundrymen,	369, 373
“ of machinists,	374
“ of sewing machines,	376
“ of locomotive builders,	377
“ of nail and tack makers,	380
“ of tin and sheet-iron workers,	380
“ of cutlery makers,	382, 389
“ of wire goods,	389
“ of shipwrights,	390
“ of bedstead-makers,	391
“ of box-makers,	391
“ of card clothing,	392
“ of chemicals, etc.,	292
“ of gas-works,	293
“ of lead, paint and varnish works,	294
“ of oils, etc.,	295
“ of powder and cartridges,	296
“ of pork-works,	297
“ of bakers and confectioners,	298
“ of breweries and distilleries,	298
“ of butchers,	299
“ of cheese-makers,	299
“ of chocolate mills,	299
“ of fishmongers,	300
“ of flour mills,	300
“ of preserves and pickles,	300
“ of hoop-skirt and corset-makers,	272
“ of print-works,	272
“ of hosiery,	274
“ of rubber and elastic goods,	274, 276
“ of straw and palm-leaf workers,	278
“ of woollen factories,	280
“ of felting,	329
“ of jewelry-makers,	329
“ of leather-workers,	331, 336
“ of pocket-book makers,	337
“ of sewing-silk factories,	338
“ of twine, flax, etc.,	340
“ of whip-makers,	341
“ of car and carriage-makers,	343, 347
“ of carpenters and joiners,	347-353
“ of masons,	348, 353
“ of painters,	348, 353
“ of plasterers,	349, 354
“ of plumbers and gas-fitters,	349, 354
“ of roofing,	349, 354
“ of sash and blind makers,	349, 354
“ of sawing and planing,	351, 354
“ of cabinet-makers,	355, 360
“ of chair-makers,	355, 360
“ of furniture-makers,	357, 361
“ of musical instrument-makers,	358
“ of agricultural tool-makers,	363, 367
“ of boiler-makers,	36
“ of ice-packing,	30

	Page.
Hours of labor of spices and coffee,	300
“ of sugar refiners,	301
“ of tobacco factories,	301
“ of brick-makers,	303
“ of stove-linings,	304
“ of earthen and stoneware makers,	305
“ of glass-works,	305, 307
“ of quarry labor,	307, 310
“ of bookbinders,	310
“ of engravers and lithographers,	311
“ of wood-pulp,	322
“ of envelope-makers,	322
“ of paper-collar makers,	322
“ of paper-ruling,	323
“ of printing business,	323
“ of type foundries,	325
“ of broom and brush makers,	327
“ of carpet-weavers,	328
“ of oil-cloth,	328
“ of comb-makers,	328
“ of isinglass,	393
“ of knitting machines,	393
“ of locksmiths,	393
“ of looking-glasses and picture frames,	393
“ of pattern-making, etc.,	393
“ of lead-pencils,	394
“ of photographers,	394
“ of pump-makers,	394, 395
“ of sewing machine needles,	395
“ of shuttles,	395
“ of miscellaneous employments,	399-416
“ of recapitulation in ninety-four occupations,	419-422
Ice,	300
Isinglass,	393
Iron-works,	364, 365
Intemperance,	538
“ efforts to abolish,	538, 539
“ caused by poverty,	539
“ extremes of society the victims of,	539, 542
“ the first glass, a result,	539
“ power of custom or fashion,	540
“ the bar-room the poor man's parlor, etc.,	540, 541
“ how to effect a radical cure,	542
“ picture of the tempted young man,	542-545
Jewelry, etc.,	329-331
Knitters, frame, strike of,	136-149
“ “ character of,	148
Knitting machines,	393
Land travel and transportation,	188-194
Lace,	393
Lacids, paints, varnish,	294, 295

	Page.
Leather,	331
Leather board,	337
Legislation on labor demanded,	11, 12, 187, 490, 492
" on wages,	21, 26
" against combination,	21, 22
" on apprentices and journeymen,	25, 26
" repeal of,	28
" recommendations for,	567, 568
Lost time,	466, 469
Lawrence, management of mills at,	468, 469
Lowell, mills at,	470, 471, 472, 473
Lime,	307
Lead pencils,	394
Locks,	393
Looking-glasses, etc.,	393
Locomotives,	377, 378
" important statement,	378
Lynn, strike at,	93-98
" " testimony on,	93-98
" shoe business at,	242
Laws and customs relating to labor in Austria,	516, 517
" " " in Grand Duchy of Baden,	514, 515
" " " in France,	516
" " " in the Netherlands,	508
" " " in Prussia,	509, 510
" " " in Russia,	515
" " " in Saxony,	512, 513
" " " in Spain,	516
" " " in Sweden,	512
" " " in Turkey,	513, 514
" " " in Wurtemberg,	513
Labor, cheap,	156, 157, 158, 168, 230, 308, 535, 555, 556
" division of,	211, 242, 243, 289, 325, 341, 342, 344, 357, 371
" Chinese,	461, 462, 463, 536
" sale of,	535, 536, 537
" servility of,	537
Law relating to children,	487
" to tenement houses,	517, 518
Laws, industrial, of North German Confederation,	510-512
Machinists,	374, 375
Machinery,	365
Marble,	309, 310
Masons,	348, 353
Matches,	295
Manufacturers, effects of strike upon,	86
" union of,	88
Marlborough, strike at,	117-125
" testimony concerning Crispins,	33
Medicine and perfumery,	295
Metal-work,	362-370
Milliners,	217
" work-rooms of,	217
" home-life of,	217
Miscellaneous employments of women,	217-222

	Page.
Muff and collar makers,	218
Musical instrument makers,	358, 359
Nails and tacks,	379
Nailers, strike of,	131-134
Neckties,	342
Needham, strike of frame-knitters at,	136-149
North Adams, strike at,	98-117
" visit of Bureau to,	98
" coöperative shoe factory at,	455, 456
North Bridgewater, coöperative store at,	453
Oils, etc.,	295
Oil cloth,	328
Omnibus lines,	188
Overseer, discharge of,	468
Paint manufactory,	294
Painters,	348, 353
Paper mills,	312-321
" ruling,	323
" box-makers,	219, 323
" collar-makers,	219, 322
Paste, prepared,	394
Pattern-making, etc.,	393
Planes,	387-389
Planing mills,	353
Plasterers,	349, 354
Plumbers,	349, 354
Pork works,	297
Powder and cartridge companies,	296
Print works,	272
Preserves and pickles,	300
Pocket books,	337
Printing,	323
Pumps,	394
Photographs,	394
Parliamentary commission on trades unions,	30
Pauper labor,	9, 10
Poverty,	531-538
" meaning of,	531
" of the uncivilized,	532
" of the industrial classes not understood,	533
" wage-laborers but little removed from,	434
" generates stagnation,	534
" a position of servility,	537
" a national curse,	538
" a cause of intemperance,	538
" should be abolished,	549, 551
Politics and corporate capital,	475
Quinsigamond Wire Works, strike at,	126
" " methods of work at,	128
" " appearance of workmen,	129
Quarries,	307-309

	Page.
Randolph, strike at,	134
“ cooperative store at,	454
Railroads, steam,	193
“ horse,	190-193
“ “ remarks of superintendent of,	192
Real estate owned by workmen,	240, 244, 245, 291, 292, 446, 463
Recommendations,	567, 568
Rent,	244, 254, 338, 339, 351, 371, 377, 384, 385, 388, 460
Roofing,	349, 354
Rumselling as a means of getting a living,	550
Savings of workmen,	447, 448-452
Savings Banks,	458
Sash and blind-makers,	349, 350-354
Sawing and planing,	351
Saleswomen,	204
Schools, factory and half-time,	493, 498
Sewing machines,	376
“ machine needles,	395
Shop and manufacturing work,	205
Shovels,	367
Shuttles, etc.,	395
Ship and boat-building,	390
Silk factories,	337-340
Somerset Coöperative Foundry Company,	456
Spices and coffee,	300
Store work,	203-205
Stove linings,	304
Stoves,	364
Steam-bending,	396
Straw and palm leaf,	278
Sugar refinery,	301
Supply and demand,	31, 40, 171
St. Crispins, origin of name of,	32
“ influence of,	33
“ testimony on,	33
“ benefits of organization of,	241, 248
Strikes, estimated loss by,	9
“ beginning of,	21
“ meaning of,	39
“ of the Hebrew slaves,	12
“ of the Roman plebeians,	12
“ American colonists,	12
“ of the Protestants,	12
“ of the French lawyers,	13
“ ancient,	23
“ laws against,	21
“ explained,	40-45
“ against the truck system,	45
“ violence not a legitimate result of,	40
“ for reduction of hours,	45, 48
“ in Massachusetts in 1870,	46
Strike in Fall River,	47-93
“ “ testimony on,	47-85
“ “ rewards, proclamations, etc., concerning,	85, 86

	Page.
Strike at Fall River, cost of,	86
“ “ effect of, upon manufacturers,	86
“ “ number thrown out of employment by,	87
“ “ review of,	88-93
“ “ leaders of, deprived of work and tenements,	90
“ “ originating with employers,	90
“ at Lynn,	93-98
“ “ testimony on,	93-98
“ “ remarks on,	98
“ at North Adams,	98-117
“ “ cause of,	47, 110
“ “ testimony on,	98-116
“ “ introduction of Chinese,	98
“ “ conclusions in,	117
“ at Marlborough,	117-125
“ “ cause of,	47
“ “ testimony on,	117-125
“ “ conclusions on,	125
“ at Worcester,	126, 131
“ “ cause of,	47, 126, 130
“ “ testimony on,	126-130
“ at Weymouth,	131-134
“ “ object of,	131
“ “ testimony on,	131-134
“ at Randolph,	134-136
“ “ object of,	47, 134
“ “ testimony on,	134, 135
“ at Needham,	136-149
“ “ testimony on,	136-148
“ “ documents and resolutions relating to,	145
“ at Holyoke and South Adams,	290
“ at Preston,	41
“ at Amesbury,	45
Store accounts,	434, 435, 467
Spinners, moral habits of,	465, 469, 470, 472
Sunday, observance of,	465
Southbridge, management of mills at,	467, 468
Trades-Unions, influence of,	10, 28, 32
“ “ combinations by,	25-39
“ “ methods of,	34
“ “ real objects of,	39
“ “ origin and spread of,	26
“ “ necessity of,	28, 29, 31, 35, 36
“ “ as educators,	32
“ “ advantages of,	34
“ “ un-American,	36
“ “ testimony on,	33, 37, 122
“ “ saw-grinders and brick-makers, violence of,	30
“ “ “ “ members of, described,	30
“ “ numbers of,	32, 33
“ “ defence of,	40
“ “ opinions on,	137
Trades-unionists, persecutions of,	28
Tanners,	335

	Page.
Tacks and nails,	366, 379
Tools and cutlery,	381-389
Toys,	396
Tobacco,	301, 302
Tin and sheet-iron,	366, 380, 381
Tubs and pails,	396
Twine, cordage, flax, etc.,	340
Type Foundries,	325
Tenement houses,	517-531
" " law in relation to,	517
" " law, violation of, by officials,	518
" " owners of,	519
" " necessary results of,	519-521
" " visits to and description of,	521-528
" " what is to become of the poor?	529
" " Hon. Josiah Quincy's plan,	530
" " the condition of tenants necessarily hopeless,	531
Tables. (<i>See Wages.</i>)	
Table concerning children,	237
" " homes,	240
" on cost of living,	424-433, 444, 445
" on real estate,	446
" on savings,	447
" of earnings in cotton manufacture,	267
Truck system,	434, 467, 468
Umbrella and parasol-makers,	220
Varnish manufactory,	295
Vessels, sailing,	194, 195
" coasting,	195, 196
" steam,	196, 197
Vinegar,	303
Vises,	377
Water travel and transportation,	194-197
Warehouse and wholesale stores,	397
Westfield, Coöperative Cigar-makers' Association at,	467
Weymouth, strike at,	131-134
Wire-workers, strike of,	126
Wooden-ware, etc.,	397
Whips,	341
Wire goods,	389
Wire cloth,	342
Wood pulp,	321, 322
Women, employments of, 159, 160, 197-230, 244, 254, 264, 274, 275, 290, 295, 296, 298, 300, 301, 305, 306, 313, 322, 323, 325, 331, 337, 338, 340, 342, 346, 347, 355, 356, 358, 368, 369, 380, 383, 389, 390, 391, 509, 510, 512, 513, 514, 516	
" low wages of, and prostitution,	207, 208, 229, 230
" competition of country and city,	201
" want of proper accommodations for,	205
" impositions practised on,	202, 203, 205, 221
" testimony of two working,	222-224
" obstacles in the way of,	225-228
" the ballot a necessity of,	229

Wages. (*See also Hours of Labor.*)

	Page.
" legislation on,	21, 26
" cannot be permanently reduced,	566
" by what governed,	535
" strikes against reduction of,	47, 93, 98, 131
" large accumulations by, impossible,	417
" necessity for reduction of,	42-44
" of agriculturists,	156, 157, 159, 160, 164, 170
" of shop girls,	206, 207
" of boot and shoemakers,	223-236, 238, 245, 246
" of cotton establishments,	258-261, 266, 270
" of woollen factories,	250, 252, 282-287, 288, 290
" of worsted work,	272
" of harness-makers,	329
" of paper mills,	313, 314
" of bleacheries, etc.,	326, 327
" table of, hosiery business,	141
" " agriculture,	159
" " drivers, etc.,	188
" " expressmen, etc.,	189
" " horse railroads,	190-192
" " steam "	193
" " sailing vessels,	195
" " coasting "	195
" " steam "	195
" " cash and errand girls,	203
" " saleswomen,	204
" " cap and hat makers,	209
" " cloak-makers,	209
" " custom clothing makers,	210
" " wholesale clothing establishments,	212-215
" " dressmakers,	216
" " hair-dressers and chignon-makers,	218
" " muff and collar makers,	218
" " paper-box makers,	219
" " shirt-makers,	219
" " umbrella and parasol makers,	220
" " boot and shoe makers,	233-236
" " miscellaneous apparel,	250 252
" " cotton establishments,	258-261
" " hoop-skirts and corsets,	273
" " leather trade,	333, 334
" " cars and carriages,	343
" " building trades,	353, 354
" " furniture,	360, 361
" " metal-workers,	363, 366
" " machinists,	374, 375
" " tools and cutlery,	382
" " woollen factories,	282
" " Boston Gas Light Co.,	294
" " pork-works,	297
" " paper mills,	313, 314
" " miscellaneous employments, by counties,	399-416
" " " "	441-443
" " recapitulated,	419-422
Wage system,	475-522
Weavers' earnings,	465



3 9999 06316 101 0

FRAGILE

Do Not
Photocopy